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CÆSAR AS A TEXT-BOOK

INTRODUCTION

THE propriety of retaining Cæsar in the secondary schools has been frequently questioned. In the brief courses which the average programme affords, the Gallic War occupies a large space and it is perhaps not surprising that teachers should find it somewhat wearisome to spend so long a time on one book. In various educational meetings of late this feeling has found expression in sharp criticisms not only upon the amount of time spent upon Cæsar, but also upon the pedagogic value of the book. Thus it has been declared that the subject-matter is uninteresting to teacher and pupils alike, and that inasmuch as the Gallic War is but the history of a war of conquest in which acts of cruelty and injustice are ever recurring incidents, the work may even have a demoralizing tendency. It is easy to allow one's judgments to be affected by the opinions of others and it is perhaps to be feared that these attacks by men of eminence in the educational world may have tempted some teachers to ignore too readily the preëminent merits of Cæsar's works as an educational instrument.

Many of the current arguments against the value of Cæsar as a text-book would seem to owe their force to the fact that the Gallic War is usually read too early in the course, before the

pupil is adequately equipped for the study of so difficult an author. Other criticisms seem to be explained by the fact that some of our teachers have failed to appreciate and, therefore, fully to utilize the material which the work affords them. A defective method, however, in presenting Cæsar is surely not sufficient to justify us in banishing him from the preparatory school, if it can be shown that he not only possesses extraordinary value as a disciplinary instrument, but affords also a unique opportunity for presenting to the pupil the spectacle of Rome as a conquering and organizing power—a lesson which he must learn if he is to understand the history of modern Europe. It may not, therefore, be inopportune to consider here the grounds on which one can claim for "Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War" a prominent place in our school programmes. This is a subject that we find debated in educational literature early in the century, but the writer knows no discussion of the question which, taking nothing for granted, covers the ground so completely as an article, "Cæsar als Schulbuch," by A. Wagler, which appeared in July 1857, in the *Zeitschrift für das Gymnasialwesen*, pp. 481-503. Wagler's treatment of the subject is so thoroughgoing, that in spite of the fact that he was considering the question in relation to the German Gymnasium, in which since that time the scope of the work in the classics has been considerably restricted, his paper, nevertheless, contains little that is inappropriate to the discussion here. It has seemed best, therefore, to present in the following pages a translation of this article, omitting only the great part of the footnotes and a few portions of the text, where condensation seemed possible without detriment to the argument.

CÆSAR AS A TEXT-BOOK

Among the educational instruments of the gymnasium, the Greek and Latin classics occupy the first place. A critical examination of these with reference to their subject-matter and form cannot fail to be welcome, especially in a period of earnest pedagogic strife wherein the one party would, so far as possible, throw overboard as unnecessary ballast the entire system of

classical education, with all the Greek and Latin authors; while the other party would restore, at least so far as the gymnasium is concerned, their former exclusive sway. Only by such an examination is it possible to reach an unpartisan and just judgment concerning the ancient classics.

It is not sufficient, however for our purpose to pronounce this or that opinion concerning the pedagogic worth or worthlessness of a book and to support this opinion by certain more or less plausible reasons; what we need is to reach a reliable conclusion, based upon sound principles. Before we proceed, therefore, to a closer examination of Cæsar, we must seek first to provide ourselves with a standard of criticism by bringing together the qualities which we require of a schoolbook, or, to be specific, of an historian who is suitable for school use. One might very briefly make a comprehensive statement of the qualities by saying that what is necessary is appropriate matter in an appropriate form; but not much would be gained thereby, for we should have to proceed immediately to define what we mean by "appropriate," and in defining this idea we should find that we must apply, not an absolute, but merely a relative standard; *i. e.*, we should be compelled to consider not merely the subject by itself, but also at the same time to take into account the grade and the needs of those by whom each particular book is to be used. Now, in general, in regard to subject-matter, an historian may be described as appropriate if he

First, treats a period of importance in general history; *i. e.*, if he deals with events or personalities that have had important influence upon the world's history; and if

Secondly, he unfolds before us not merely a faithful and accurate, but also a lively and diversified picture of this time, of these personalities and events.

The form will deserve to be described as appropriate if conception, setting, and diction, are clear, simple, noble, and suited to the young or to a particular period of youth.

After these prefatory remarks, we proceed to the consideration of the book named above. That Cæsar Commentaries trans-

port us into an important period of the world's history and into the midst of events that had important influences on the course of history, is a statement that probably needs no proof. Few other wars have contributed so much as Cæsar's to transform the destinies of our portion of the earth ; indeed, of the whole world. The Roman people was the most powerful of all antiquity, and in Cæsar's time it stood at the summit of its power and greatness. This period of Roman history has, however, a twofold significance, inasmuch as it marks, on the one hand, the highest point of Rome's universal dominion, and, on the other hand, the commencement of the period of decline. For while her legions, still everywhere victorious, smite down the foes without, within there already appear signs of the ruin to which the Roman world is destined to fall a victim in order to make way for a new world, the Christianized German, into whose hands the sovereignty of the world should pass. Both aspects of this transition period we see represented also in Cæsar's writings, the one in the Gallic War, the other in the Civil War, which affords us a glimpse into the already diseased organism of the gigantic body.

The most momentous epoch, however, in the life of Cæsar is undoubtedly that of the Gallic Wars. They are of moment, not only as affecting Cæsar himself and the Roman Empire (inasmuch as for him they prepared the way to sole dominion, and with reference to the empire, entailed the downfall of the republican constitution), but principally because of their later and indirect consequences, inasmuch as the conquest and complete Romanizing of Gaul had a most powerful influence upon the form and destinies of western and central Europe. Roman dominion in the course of four centuries took such deep root in Gaul that all the subsequent revolutions have availed merely to modify it ; choke it or annihilate it they could not. While in modern France the Keltic race which originally possessed the principal part of Gaul has with the exception of a few remnants disappeared, and while the Germanic elements which gained ascendancy after the Romans seem almost completely to have disappeared, Neo-Latinism has not only persisted, but in a cer-

tain sense has recovered its lost ascendancy. It was in Gaul that already in the ninth century the throne of the Cæsars was again set up, and thence Christendom united with Roman civilization, extended itself over central and northern Europe. *The history of the entire Middle Ages and of the later period down to the present time bears testimony so clearly to the historic importance of these wars that we may doubtless concede that the Gallic War satisfies the first requirement which we proposed.*

But is the picture itself which is unrolled before our gaze one that is worthy of its great subject-matter? Is it not merely faithful and accurate in regard to historic facts, but also lively, rich, and distinct in details? The circumstance that the Gallic Wars are related by Cæsar himself, who, standing at the center of action, commanded a complete survey of the whole field, must also on this account excite a favorable presumption for the book, and this presumption will be substantially justified by a closer examination of the work. Setting aside for the moment a subject to which we shall recur briefly, namely, the question of the historic truth of the account, we wish for the present merely to call attention to the richness of these pictures of war and the value which they thereby gain for the understanding of history and for the lively perception of historic relations and conditions.

The Gallic War is usually read in the middle grade of the gymnasium. In his history the pupil has already become acquainted with the most important periods of Roman history. He has seen how Rome from a small beginning grew to be the mistress of the world; how she brought city after city, people after people, country after country beneath the sway of her scepter. He has read much and heard much of Roman military discipline and courage, of the battles and victories of the Romans by land and sea; but all these things have not yet been immediately presented to him; he has as yet had no opportunity to make a closer acquaintance with this remarkable people. Here, however, in the Gallic War he is transported into the bustle and movement of a Roman war of conquest, and one,

moreover, of the vastest that the Romans ever undertook. The proud legions of whom he has heard so much now appear, as it were, bodily before his eye. He accompanies them upon all their marches, beholds them crossing rivers and streams, constructing bridges, building ships, throwing up entrenchments, besieging and storming cities. He witnesses their endurance, their struggles, their victories. In this way he learns many important facts in a certain sense by personal observation. Among these is, first and most important of all, the entire military system of the Romans with everything connected with it. The beginner becomes acquainted here with the various constituent parts and divisions of the Roman army, their organization, weapons, and use. He learns, besides the various formations employed in battle and on the march, all the processes of fortification and of siege work pertaining both to the means of attack and of defense, the camp life and the arrangement of the camp, the commissariat, and the system of payment, as well as the organization of the baggage and transportation corps, and much else which it would take too long to enumerate. The knowledge of these things is the more important for the boy, because he thereby becomes acquainted essentially with the entire military system of antiquity, and, indeed, with the most important elements of the military art of all periods and of all peoples. Also concerning naval warfare, the building and equipment of ships, concerning the different kinds of vessels and their employment, concerning the embarking, the transportation by sea, and the landing of an army he gets in many passages valuable information.¹ Just as we become acquainted with the military system of the Romans, so also we learn that of their opponents, the Gauls, the Germans, the Britons, and because of their peculiarity many of these details are of great interest to boys.² Cæsar gives us also many interesting glimpses of other institutions, customs, and usages, of the religious ideas

¹ Cf., III, 9 ff.; IV, 20 ff.; V, 1-23.

² Cf., I, 26, 48, 51, 52 ff.; II, 6 ff., 10, 11, 19 ff., 30 ff.; III, 4, 12 ff., 18, 19, 28 29; IV, 1, 12, 24, 33; V, 14 ff., 21, 34 ff., 42 ff., 51 ff.; VI, 8 ff., 15, 23, 35 ff.; VII, 22-25, 71 ff.

and worship, and of the manner of life and origin of these peoples, as well as of the character of their land and of their dwellings.¹

The Gallic War affords us further a very instructive glimpse into the policy of the Romans and into those methods which in their wars of conquest they used to employ as an aid to the force of arms. We see here by an actual example, how cunningly and quickly they prepared the way for the subjugation of the country upon which they had fixed their eye; how at first and long before the actual attack they sought to break its power of resistance by meddling in its internal affairs, by alliances with individual tribes or princes against others of the same race, by exciting and promoting internal dissensions and by the cunning employment of all the ensuing complications;—how they then gradually allowed the mask to fall and began with ever increasing insistence to play the part of master; with what strength and quickness they now at last completely prostrated their victim, while his every attempt to free himself they punished with the utmost severity; sometimes indeed with inhuman cruelty,² as high treason and insurrection against their lawful sovereignty, and how within the iron embrace of their legions the convulsive efforts at resistance grew ever weaker, until finally there ensued the quiet of complete servitude, which, nevertheless, in the course of time was wont to assume the gentler aspect of a peaceful assimilation of the foreign element.

In the Gallic War, moreover, we gain information concerning the relation which the allied, as well as the subjugated, peoples sustained to the Romans and concerning the duties and services which they were pledged to render to their conquerors. We see how the conquered and those also who had voluntarily submitted not only had to send hostages as a pledge of their faithfulness and obedience, but were also compelled to provide the Romans grain supplies and auxiliary troops, particularly cavalry.

¹ Cf., I, 1, 3 ff., 6, 17, 18, 29 ff., 34 ff., 47, 50; II, 1, 4 ff., 13, 15, 17, 28–31; III, 8–10, 12, 13, 18–22; IV, 5, 13, 20, 27; V, 3, 6 ff., 12–15, 25 ff., 56; VI, 11–28, 30; VII, 2, 3, 21–24, 40, 42, 48, 50, 55, 56.

² Cf. V, 7; VII, 28; VIII, 44.

We see their princes compelled to attend Cæsar upon his campaigns and to hold themselves continually subject to his orders. He treats them entirely as inferiors and frequently subjects them to a severe examination, administering censure or punishment, or praising and encouraging them. Those whose allegiance he suspects he surrounds with spies and eavesdroppers and even takes abroad with him as prisoners and treats their refusal to follow him as high treason.¹ Independent princes, and tribes they sought to win over and attach to themselves by titles of honor or even by gifts.² These *amici et socii* or *fratres et consanguinei populi Romani*, as the Romans were fond of calling their faithful allies, enjoyed also special protection, and their services, which were frequently onerous, were rewarded at the expense of the common foe, or else they were consoled with prospect of future rewards.³ Whenever, as frequently occurred in Gaul, two factions, one Roman and the other anti-Roman, or national, contended for supremacy in the same state, the former was sure to receive vigorous support from Cæsar and he never rested till his party had gained the upper hand and men friendly to himself were at the head of the state.⁴ In many places there occur, sometimes casual references, sometimes detailed information concerning the mutual relations of the different Gallic tribes, of whom the more powerful exercise a sort of hegemony over the weaker, as well as statements concerning their relations to the Germans and Britons, of whom the former especially play a great rôle in the Gallic War, now as an object of terror to the Gauls, and again as their powerful and ever-ready confederates against the Romans.⁵

¹ I, 16, 18 ff., 20, 31, ff.; V, 3, 4, 5-7, 26, ff., 54; VII, 37, 40.

² I, 3, 33, 35, 36, 42-44; IV, 12; VII, 31, etc.

³ Cf. I, 14, ff., 35, ff., 43, 45; IV, 16; VI, 12; VII, 34, 54.

Populi Romani hanc esse consuetudinem, says Cæsar to Ariovistus, *ut socios atque amicos non modo sui nihil deperdere, sed gratia, dignitate, honore, auctiores velit esse*. In fact Cæsar could hardly have expressed more accurately the principles by which in their foreign policy the Romans regularly practiced corruption and by means of which hardly less than by means of the sword they became so great and powerful.

⁴ Cf. I, 18 ff.; V, 3, 25, 56 ff.; VI, 4 ff., 8, 44; VII, 32, 33.

⁵ Cf. I, 9, 31 ff., 36 ff., 43 ff.; II, 3, 4, 14, 29, 39; III, 8, 9; IV, 1 ff., 20, 21; V, 3, 27; VI, 2, 3, 5, 11 ff.; VII, 15, 20, 63, 75, 77, 89.

Thus a boy can learn very much from Cæsar; he can derive from him information and views which will be of great service to him for the understanding not only of Roman history, but of history in general. But we must at this point notice an objection which is raised against the Gallic War party in this very regard. It is maintained, namely, that the book is not suitable reading for the young just on this account, because it carries the reader too far into political relations, military history, and subjects such as these, for which the boy has not yet developed a liking.¹ It is easy to see that, if the objection is put in this form, its entire force consists in the one little word *too* and so, that as long as we neglect to establish a definite line of division between what is too far and what is just far enough, it is impossible, strictly speaking, either to refute the objection or to concede its force. For no one will deny that for a vivid conception of history an introduction into details of military history and even of political relations is all important. And just as in everything else, so also in this subject it is true that *an exact acquaintance, a making one's self at home, as it were, in a small territory, is more valuable and more fruitful than a superficial acquaintance with a large and varied field.*

More serious in import than the above is another objection that is made against the use of the Gallic War as a school book, an objection likewise derived from the subject-matter. It is maintained that these commentaries, by the uniformity of their subject-matter and the constant repetition of the same things, must prove wearisome to the pupil. There is a constant marching to and fro, now against this tribe, now against that, but everywhere there is essentially the same spectacle: a laying waste of the country, burning of villages, storming and plundering of cities, marchings, isolated skirmishes, a decisive battle, flight and massacre of the foe, and finally submission and the giving of hostages, etc. This objection is not without foundation. A certain degree of uniformity is exhibited externally in

¹ With what justice military history is reckoned among the subjects in which boys have no interest it is hard to understand.

the frequent recurrence of the same expressions and phrases;¹ and it lay also in the nature of the case and in the kind of war which Cæsar had to conduct in Gaul that a certain similarity in events should recur. But the case is far from being so bad as it seems. The uniformity is rather verbal than real, consisting in certain accessories and externals rather than in the essentials. For, if we examine the contents of the separate books more closely, we shall find therein the utmost diversity. This diversity appears:

First, in the frequent change in the scene of war. We mean not merely the change in the countries (Gaul, Germany, and Britain), but particularly the change in the localities. At one moment it is the valleys of the Alps or the regions about Lake Geneva and the Rhone; at another, it is Brittany or Normandy and the Atlantic coast; now it is the vast plains of Aquitania, and now again it is the marshy and wooded lowland near the lower Rhine and the Meuse.

Second, in the varying character of the peoples against whom the wars are waged, in the varying course of these campaigns themselves, and in the variety of the situations in which the Romans find themselves. At one time it is a campaign by land, at another time it is by sea (or both combined); now the Romans are struggling against the fearful battle hordes of the Germans, now against the fleet hosts of the Britons, who charge down upon them in their chariots, and now again against the impetuous fury and treachery of the Gallic races. At one moment it is a struggle to beat back assailing foes, at another to quell insurrections arising in the interior of Gaul, and again at another to

¹ Thus in connection with the preparations for a campaign (*frumentum comportare* or *rem frumentariam providere, loca perspicere, equitatum praemittere, cum legionibus subsequi*, etc. So, too, in relating the further operations: *Adventu eius cognito hostes . . . milia passuum progredi, locum castris idoneum deligere, castra munire, copias e castris educere, triplici acie instructa ad h. contendere, milites adhortari, signo dato proelium committere*, etc., etc.). The battles can also for the most part all be reduced to two classes: either in consequence of the frightful volley of pikes the enemy turn in flight at the first encounter with the legions (*primo impetu tergavertere* or *in fugam conici*, or they offer stubborn resistance. But even in the latter case the course of the battle does not exhibit much diversity.

chastise hostile neighbors and prepare the way for their subjection. We see the legions doing battle, at one moment united in greater masses, at another dispersed in various regions. Now it is a struggle against separate powerful tribes, now against greater confederacies. The scene shifts from the open field of battle to the wearisome sieges, in which the Romans play the part now of besiegers and now of besieged (or, as in Alesia, the part of both at once). Victories alternate with defeats; on the one hand the art of war, on the other despair contrives ever to find other and new means of attack or defense, and thereby to give a new and unexpected turn to the course of combat. This diversity appears further.

Third, in the fact that in the course of these campaigns the attention of the reader is directed at one time rather to the entire scene, while at another there appear in the foreground individual characters of importance who claim our interest in an extraordinary degree. To this class belong, for example, Ariovistus, Dumnorix, Cingetorix, Vercingetorix, Indutiomarus, Divitiacus, etc., and upon the side of the Romans, besides Cæsar himself, men like Labienus, Servius Galba, Q. T. Sabinus, and L. Aurunculeius Cotta, Q. Cicero, and P. Crassus.

Fourth, in the little episodes that are interwoven here and there in the narrative and the individual traits of personal courage, which contribute much to enliven the whole.¹ To this we add.

Fifth, the manifold accounts and descriptions of countries and peoples, of their customs and institutions. (*Cf. supra.*)

To illustrate all this in detail would take too long. We must confine ourselves to a few examples, and this we can the better do, inasmuch as the reader is sufficiently familiar with the text of Cæsar.

Thoroughly interesting and diversified is the first book containing the war against the Helvetians, and the account of Ariovistus. In the first part there is presented to the boy a very lively and vivid picture of a small tribal migration as a kind

¹ Cf. IV, 12, 25; V, 37, 43, 44; VI, 38, etc.

of prelude to the mighty movements which some centuries later changed the face of all Europe. In the second part of the book he makes his first nearer acquaintance with his own ancestors, the rough and defiant Germans, who dispute with Cæsar the possession of the fair land of Gaul, to which they claim as much, if not more right than, the Romans. How masterly in all its simplicity is the description of Ariovistus himself, a description which surely no boy can read without intense interest and sympathy. How proud and defiant, and withal how cunning does he appear before Cæsar, and how overpowering is the awe which he has managed to make the subjugated Gauls feel for him! Compare in particular the speech of the Æduan Divitiacus (I, 31), who sketches for us a very lively picture of that *homo barbarus, iracundus, temerarius*, before whose anger the Gallic tribes tremble, and who punished with unheard of cruelty the slightest resistance. "If Rome will not provide relief," says Divitiacus, "all the Gauls will be compelled to follow the example of the Helvetians, *ut domo emigrent, aliud domicilium, alias sedes, remotas a Germanis petant fortunamque, quaecumque accadat, experiantur.*" And then how significant, immediately after, is the demeanor of the Sequani, in whose land the defiant foreigners have made their abode, and who were doomed most bitterly to experience the cruelty of Ariovistus, whom they themselves had invited thither. All the Gallic princes had, with tears, entreated Cæsar for protection against their oppressor; only the Sequani are silent and stand with hanging heads, their gaze riveted upon the ground. In vain does Cæsar seek to learn from them themselves the cause of this strange behavior. Not a word can he extract from them. Finally we get from Divitiacus full information. The fate of the Sequani, he says, is most melancholy, *quod soli ne in occulto quidem queri neque auxilium implorare auderent absentisque Ariovisti crudelitatem velutsi coram adesset horrerent.* That is the picture of him which is presented to us even before the appearance of the man himself. At first, therefore, Cæsar is very cautious in his intercourse with Ariovistus. He sends envoys to him with the request, *uti aliquem locum medium utriusque conloquio*

deligeret ; velle sese de republica et summis utriusque rebus cum eo agere. Ariovistus replies to him somewhat unmannerly : *Si quid ipsi a Caesare opus esset, sese ad eum venturum fuisse ; si quid ille se vellet, illum ad se venire oportere.* He adds at the close : *Sibi autem mirum videri, quid in sua Gallia, quam bello vicisset, aut Caesari aut omnino populo Romano negotii esset.* Hardly more impolite was the answer which he returned later to the abrupt demands of Cæsar, whose patience was at last beginning to fail. Cæsar, as is well known, had demanded of him that he should permit no more Germans to cross the Rhine into Gaul, that he should restore the hostages of the Ædui and the Sequani, and finally that in future he should not in any way molest the allies of the Roman people. To this he had added the threat that if Ariovistus should not comply with his demands, he would take the matter into his own hands and undertake to protect the allies of the Roman people against the violence of the Germans. Ariovistus, thereupon, replied to him : "*Jus esse belli, ut, qui vicissent, iis, quos vicissent, quem ad modum vellent, imperarent : item populum Romanum victis non ad alterius praescriptum, sed ad suum arbitrium imperare consuesse. Si ipse populo Romano non praescriberet, quem ad modum suo iure uteretur, non oportere se a populo Romano in suo iure impediri. Haeduos sibi, quoniam belli fortunam temptassent et armis congressi ac superati essent, stipendiarios esse factos.*" He would not give back their hostages, nor would he, on the other hand, commence any unjust war against them or their allies, so long as they faithfully fulfilled their obligations to him and did not refuse to pay their annual tribute. If, however, they should not do this, then the fraternal relation which they had with the Roman people would avail them naught. In fact, such language was not unbecoming to the prince of a people whose descendants were destined to overthrow the mighty Roman Empire.

The second book is not so rich in interesting details, but it gives us further information concerning the internal affairs of Gaul, especially concerning the Belgian tribes of the northeast, whose names are to this day recognizable in those of certain old

cities (Soissons from the *Suessiones*, Amiens from the *Ambiani*, Beauvais from the *Bellovaci*, Rheims from the *Remi*, Treves from the *Treviri*). Finally, mention should here be made of the war against the Nervii (chs. 16-28) and especially the siege of the capital of the Aduatuci (chs. 29-33). After the Romans had invested this unusually strong town, which lay upon an eminence, and had surrounded it with siege work and were now making ready to erect a tower at some distance from it, the besieged began to mock from the wall and utter derisive cries, *quod tanta machinatio a tanto spatio instrueretur: quibusnam manibus aut quibus viribus praesertim homines tautulae staturae (nam plerumque hominibus Gallis prae magnitudine corporum suorum brevitudo nostra contemptui est) tanti oneris turrim moturos esse confiderent?* But when they saw the tower suddenly begin to move and to approach the city, then all at once their courage forsook them and they proffered submission. The Romans must, they said, be in alliance with the gods. *Non se existimare, Romanos sine ope divina bellum gerere, qui tantae altitudinis machinationes tanta celeritate promovere possent.*

The third book contains several little war pictures entirely different from the former ones and yet very attractive. Thus at the very beginning there is the account of Galba's struggle against the Alpine tribes in the Rhone valley. Galba has been sent into this region with one legion and a division of the cavalry, in order to open and guard the Alpine passes between Italy and Switzerland. He has already gained some victories, taken and destroyed several strongholds and so compelled the mountain tribes to submit and give hostages. In order to secure the advantages he has gained, he decides to pass the winter in the Rome valley. Here lay, shut in by high mountains and divided into halves by the Rhone, the city or village of Octodurus, inhabited by the Veragri. This is the place Galba chooses for his winter quarters. The Veragri are compelled to surrender to him the half of the village on this side of the stream, while the row of houses on the opposite side is left to them. By means of a wall and moat the Roman side is converted into a com-

pletely fortified camp, and Galba begins to make his arrangements for the winter and to procure provisions from the neighborhood. Then suddenly, one morning, the scouts bring him word, *ex ea parte vici quam Gallis concesserat, omnes noctu discessisse montesque, qui impenderent, a maxima multitudine Sedunorum et Veragrorum teneri*. The purpose of the Gauls could not long be concealed. The legion is in a position of the greatest peril, inasmuch as the fortifications of the camp are not yet fully completed and also the necessary supplies of grain are not at hand; moreover, the legion has been weakened by the withdrawal of two cohorts. A council of war is called to devise means of safety. Great is the consternation. Some are ready to abandon all hope of rescue, and advise ignominious flight. *Prope iam desperata salute nonnullae huius modi sententiae dicebantur, ut impedimentis relictis eruptione facta isdem itineribus, quibus eo pervenisent, ad salutem contenderent*. The sober minded, however maintain the ascendancy. *Maiori tamen placuit, hoc reservato ad extremum casum consilio interim rei eventum experiri et castra defendere*. Hardly is there time to issue the necessary orders for the reception of the enemy when the foe, rushing down from the mountains, rain down upon the Romans who man the walls, a storm of stones and spears. The handful of Romans holds out bravely, but the superior strength of the assailants is too great. The battle has already continued six hours without intermission, the Romans have used up all their missiles, and are utterly exhausted; their resistance is continually becoming weaker, while the Gauls are already beginning to lay hold of the breastworks and to fill up the moat. Finally Galba, acting on the advice of two of his bravest captains decides upon a desperate expedient, which is immediately employed with most brilliant success. The Roman soldiers are ordered for a time to desist wholly from battle and to act merely upon the defensive, in order to gain new strength (*tantummodo tela missa exciperent seque ex labore reficerent*.) Then suddenly at a given signal, trusting to their individual bravery, sword in hand, they are to seek to cut their way through the enemy. This is done, and a complete rout of their surprised

assailants is the result of the spirited sortie of the Romans. Galba, however, does not think it advisable to expose himself to a second surprise of this sort, therefore, after reducing the village of Octodurus to ashes, he marches southward across the Valais Alps and reaches the soil of the friendly Allobroges.

Very interesting, further, is the campaign against the Veneti and their confederates, which comprises a large part of the book (chs. 7-17), and again unfolds before the reader entirely new and peculiar scenery and pictures, which we cannot now discuss in greater detail. Also the contemporaneous campaign of Crassus in the plains of Aquitania, where already before Cæsar's time several Roman armies had suffered defeats, will be read by the pupils not without interest.

At the beginning of the fourth book there appear again two German tribes, the Usipites and the Tencteri, at the Rhine. By means of a stratagem they effect a crossing, and, invited thereto by the Gauls themselves, they penetrate deep into the interior of the country. Before their encounter with the Romans who quickly hasten in their direction, they send envoys to Cæsar and announce that while they would not indeed attack the Romans, they would not shun an engagement if attacked—*quod Germanorum consuetudo sit a maioribus tradita, quicumque bellum inferant, resistere nec deprecari*—and in order to inspire the Romans in advance with an exalted idea of their courage, they added, immediately, that the Suebi were the only race with whom they could not match themselves in conflict; with the Suebi, however, even the immortal gods could not cope. But, excepting these, there was no race upon the face of the earth whom they could not overcome. Here, also, the final outcome of the conflict does not justify this proud language, inasmuch as the Germans suffer a fearful defeat, yet on this occasion Cæsar stains his reputation by an act of faithlessness which even the Romans could not pardon.¹

This book contains besides an account of Cæsar's first crossing of the Rhine, with the well-known chapters concerning the

¹ Cf. Sueton., *Cæs.* ch. 24.

building of the bridge, and of the preliminary expedition to Britain.¹

The second and more important expedition against the Britons, undertaken with considerable forces, follows at the beginning of the fifth book. This section contains much that is interesting, especially a description of the country and its inhabitants, in which, indeed, there appears much that is strange. This, however, is not greatly to be wondered at, when we consider how brief and superficial was Cæsar's acquaintance with the country.²

But especially deserving of prominence in this book is the following section (chs. 26-52), which deals with Ambiorix and his undertakings. It is divided into two heads. First, the destruction of Q. Titurius Sabinus and L. Aurunculeius Cotta with one and a half legions (chs. 26-37), and second, the besieging of Q. Cicero, the brother of the great orator, and his brave resistance (chs. 38-52). Both divisions belong to the finest chapters of the entire Gallic wars. In the first we are introduced, among other things, to a very excited council of war (chs. 28-31), where two sharply opposing views are discussed with extraordinary skill and animation. The question at issue involves the escape or the destruction of a very important division of the army, and the situation is so peculiar, the conditions so complicated, each one of the two parties into which the council of war is divided contrives to support its view with so many probable reasons, that every reader will follow the debate with most absorbing interest and at the end will be himself almost in doubt whom he should agree with, until the unhappy conse-

¹ Chs. 20-36. Here is to be mentioned, among other things, the account of the standard bearer of the tenth legion (the bravest of all the legions) who at the landing leaps down with his eagle into the sea and thereby spurs on the hesitating soldiers to emulate his example.

² Worthy of note is the episode of Dumnorix, which precedes. He certainly ranks among the most interesting figures of the entire war on account of his relation to his brother and of what may be truly called his almost tragic fate. Relations similar to those between Divitiacus and Dumnorix were at that time not infrequent in Gaul. Cf. Cingetorix and Indutiomarus, son-in-law and father-in-law, but separated by political enmity. Bk. V, 3 ff.

quences of the view which finally prevails, and the destruction of the entire division with its commanders show only too plainly, but too late, which side was in the right. His interest cannot but be increased during the death struggle of the fifteen cohorts by the different behavior of the two leaders, Cotta and Sabinus. The former had in the council of war striven in vain for that plan which alone might have secured safety, and finally, in order not to make the breach irreconcilable and harmonious action thereby impossible, had yielded, contrary to his better judgment, and with the greatest self-denial submitted to the wish of his opponent, the impetuous, obstinate, and boastful Sabinus. Now, finally, when destruction is breaking in upon them and the treacherous plan of the foe is revealed, Sabinus is the first to lose his head. He rushes helplessly from cohort to cohort, and in his fear of death (which ill accords with his former language—*cf. ch. 30—neque is sum inquit, qui gravissime ex vobis mortis periculo terrear*, etc.), allows himself to be carried away to the most disgraceful procedure which ends in a shameful death; while Cotta at no moment loses his presence of mind, and neglects nothing that possibly might still have been able to bring help. Although seriously wounded in the face by a missile, he still remains at the head of his brave troops in the thickest turmoil of the battle, and at last, together with the greater part of the army, finds in battle a glorious death. A small handful seeks by fighting to regain the camp, from which the treachery of Ambiorix had lured them forth. Among these was the color bearer L. Petrosidius *qui cum magna multitudine hostium premeretur, aquilam intra vallum proiecit, ipse pro castris fortissime pugnans occiditur. Illi aegre ad noctem oppugnationem sustinent, noctu ad unum omnes desperata salute se ipse interficiunt*. Only some few who immediately at the beginning of the battle had sought the open space in front of the camp succeeded in making their way through the trackless forest to the nearest Roman legion, and brought the tidings of the fate of their comrades.

Still more interesting and rich in separate traits of personal bravery is the siege of Q. Cicero, for whom Ambiorix had

planned the same fate as that of these two. He, however, does not fall into the trap, but takes exactly such measures as Cotta also would have taken, if his counsel had been listened to, *cf.* ch. 41. Most celebrated also in this section, and related with dramatic liveliness, is the little episode of the two rival centurions, T. Pullo and L. Vorenus, ch. 44. Compare also besides chs. 45, 48, 51.

The sixth book is especially important for us Germans because of the description of the German country and people which is given in connection with a second crossing of the Rhine (chs. 21-28). To this description for the sake of comparison is prefixed an account of Gallic customs and conditions (chs. 11-20). This section has already been so frequently discussed that we do not need to take up the subject here. Deserving mention besides in this book is the war of annihilation against Ambiorix and the Eburones (chs. 29-43), and as an episode of this campaign a new invasion of German cavalry, which is very significant as illustrating the relation of the German races on the one side toward the Gauls and on the other toward the Romans. For instance, these troops of cavalry came actually to aid Cæsar in the destruction of the Eburones, but allowed themselves through force of circumstances to be tempted into attacking the fortified camp of Cicero. Cæsar had declared the entire people of the Eburones to be, so to say, outlaws, and to spare his own legions in the wooded and swampy country (*ut potius in silvis Gallorum vita quam miles legionarius periclitetur*, as he himself naïvely puts it), he had invited the neighbors of the Eburones to assist in the destruction of the hated race (*ut magna multitudine circumfusa . . . stirps ac nomen civitatis tollatur*). The hoped-for booty attracts countless hosts and also the cavalry of the Sugambri. These were urged by the Eburones, who had fallen into their power, to turn rather against the city Aduatuca, which was held by the Romans and filled with countless riches, where they could obtain more booty than by plundering the poor country of the Eburones. *Atque unus ex captivis, "Quid vos," inquit, "hanc miseram ac tenuem sectamini prædam,*

quibus licet iam esse fortunatissimis. Tribus horis Aduatucam venire potestis; huc omnes fortunas exercitus Romanorum contulit." The garrison of the place was said to be so weak that it was not even possible to man the walls. The Germans, to whom it was quite a matter of indifference whom they plundered, whether Gauls or Romans, did not wait a second bidding. They concealed in a safe place the booty they had so far acquired, and made all haste against Aduacuta, where, bursting suddenly forth from the woods, they caused widespread terror. The Roman merchants, who had set up their tents in front of the camp, were surprised before they could take themselves and their possessions into a place of safety, and it was only with difficulty that the cohort which was on duty before the gates resisted the first impetuous assault. Within the utmost consternation reigned. *Totis trepidatur castris, atque alius ex alio causam tumultus quaerit, neque quo signa ferantur, neque quam in partem quisque conveniat, provident. Alius castra iam capta pronuntiat, alius deleto exercitu atque imperatore* (Cæsar had in fact marched away, shortly before, with the principal division of the army, in exactly the direction from which the army came), *victores barbaros venisse contendit; plerique novas sibi ex loco religiones fingunt Cottæque et Titurii calamitatem qui in eodem occiderint castello, ante oculos ponunt.* Only through the fearlessness of P. Sextius Baculus, who had already distinguished himself in the struggle against the Alpine tribes (III, 5) and against the Nervi (II, 25), was the camp, with its rich equipment of armor, saved. Only one division of the Romans (it was composed partly of convalescents) which had been sent out on a foraging expedition, and was just then returning, was cut off by the hostile cavalry, and for the most part slain. Finally, however, the Sugambri are compelled to withdraw without accomplishing their chief object.

The seventh book is one of the richest in subject-matter. The chief interest here centers about Vercingetorix of the Arverni, under whom once more a great number of the Gallic tribes unite in a formidable alliance against the Romans, and who, by his energy and his unyielding courage, is in a high degree

worthy of our sympathy. In the struggle against Vercingetorix we find for the first time a considerable contingent of Germans in Cæsar's service, and it is by their courage also that the victory over Vercingetorix is above all due (ch. 67). After his defeat Vercingetorix withdraws to Alesia, and the siege of this city (chs. 68-90), which unquestionably belongs to the most noteworthy as well as the most familiar of the events of the Gallic War, fills the remaining portion of the seventh book.

Thus, then, we may regard the Gallic War as fulfilling also the second condition which we felt bound to impose in reference to its contents, and consider that we have demonstrated an appropriate variety of subject-matter.

So far as the language and style of Cæsar are concerned we may say that the former is recognized as classic, and we may also pass lightly over the second point, inasmuch as the highest court of appeal in the philological world has already once for all passed judgment thereon. For Cicero in his *Brutus* says of Cæsar's commentaries that they are simple, plain, full of natural charm and free from all superfluous oratorical adornment (*nudi enim sunt commentarii ornatu orationis tanquam veste detracta*), and he adds then in reference to them that there is nothing more agreeable in an historical work than a pure and lucid brevity (*nihil enim est in historia pura et illustri brevitæ dulcius*). Equally favorable is the judgment of the unknown composer of the eighth book of the Gallic War. *Constat enim inter omnes nihil tam operose ab aliis esse perfectum, quod non horum elegantia commentariorum superetur. Cuius tamen rei maior nostra quam reliquorum est admiratio, ceteri enim, quam bene atque emendate, nos etiam, quam facile atque celeriter eos perfecere, scimus. Erat autem in Caesare cum facultas atque elegantia summa scribendi, tum verissima scientia*, etc. And, in fact, when we compare with these testimonies the commentaries as they now lie before us, we must concede that Cicero especially has very aptly characterized the distinguishing marks of Cæsar's style,² an extraordinarily clear,

²The Cæsarian period is distinguished less by smoothness and agreeable finish than by a logically clear arrangement. The analysis of it is, therefore, for younger

quiet, and noble style. It is, the simplicity which indeed understands adornment, but scorns it, because it is conscious to itself that, even as rich adornment upon a beautiful body may easily conceal its beauty, so also the charm of a beautiful style is to be sought in the harmony of its members, and not in ornamental accessories. In the eyes of many, indeed, it is just this "excessive" simplicity of style that condemns the book, and they call it on this account dry and tedious—a judgment which we can not pass over altogether in silence, because, in the case of a schoolbook, it is this point above all which is of great moment. An historical work that should offer nothing except a dry enumeration of occurrences, and were these occurrences ever so important or varied, and all the accounts consistent with the truth, would naturally be entirely inappropriate as a reading book for youth, since youth demands *movement, color, life*. If now, free from prejudice, we test Cæsar's commentaries from this point of view we cannot pronounce his style entirely free from the reproach of a certain dryness. We miss, indeed nowhere life and moment, but we do fail often to find the richness of color which alone gives the proper liveliness to the picture. For, if the reader is to reproduce within himself, in a vivid way, that which is depicted (and that is certainly what is desired) the necessary point of view must be presented to his imagination. This is attained, however, only by individualizing, and it is this quality that we so often miss in Cæsar. Instead, for example, of saying *diu atque acriter hoc loco pugnatum est*, he ought rather to present to us single details from the conflict which would vividly depict before our eyes the bitterness of the struggles—and so in all other cases. Now it is true that such single details are by no means lacking, and we have noted above a whole series of examples, but the number of such, in proportion to the compass of the entire work is always too pupils an excellent training. About the principal sentence, which is usually extraordinarily simple and easily recognizable, there is grouped, as a rule, a great number of secondary and subordinate clauses. And it is of importance that the pupil should learn accurately to define their relation to the principal sentence. In translating one is very often compelled to resolve such a period into several sentences.

small, and they are themselves presented usually in a very simple and, one may say, matter-of-fact language. Likewise, for another element of description necessary to individualizing—we mean the entire external scenery, description of localities, the depicting of the characters in respect to their complete external appearance, their armor, costume, etc.—in general too little is done, at least for readers such as we here contemplate.¹ Cæsar, in fact, wrote not for youth, and for Roman readers many of these things needed no particular description. This is true among other things of the preparations for sieges, of the various engines of war, fortifications, and a hundred other things which the Roman readers knew sufficiently well from their own observation, while we are able only by artificial means to supply in a certain sense the lack of the concrete view, but are never able wholly to compensate for its want. Least of all is this possible in the case of young pupils. What, then, are we to conclude? That we shall not, therefore, read Cæsar at all with boys? That would be a premature inference. The conclusion is rather that it is necessary for the teacher by appropriate means to assist the imagination of the boy in these things, and further, indeed, it would follow from this that young pupils are qualified to read Cæsar with profit only under the guidance of a teacher, not in private. If, however, one is disposed to describe Cæsar's style as matter-of-fact merely for the reason that it is deficient in the fantastic romantic element that plays so great a rôle in modern literature, we should have to regard this deficiency rather as an advantage and as a salutary antidote to the tendency that can find good taste only in the piquant.

And with this is connected still another element of superiority in Cæsar's style which in like manner is in a higher degree peculiar to the ancients in general than to our age, namely, its objectivity. In a gentle current glide past us, so to speak, the

¹ It is only the deeds of a Cæsar or a Labienus or an Ariovistus, and their words, that a boy learns to know, their personality remains unknown to him. It is entirely different in the case of a Gustavus Adolphus, Tilly, Wallenstein (as Schiller represents him), or in the case of a Frederick II, Charles XII of Sweden, and others. Therefore, also, the interest in these cases is more lively.

events themselves without any ebullition of passion, without any admixture of feeling or reflection on the part of the narrator. This objectivity deserves recognition in Cæsar all the more because narrator and chief hero are united in the same person. In the Commentaries on the Gallic War, it is always the Cæsar who acts, never the Cæsar who narrates that we see appear.

This brings us further to the question of the credibility of Cæsar's account, which has been strongly assailed on many sides. Without undertaking a special discussion of the question, we have for our purpose to make two remarks on this subject. First, as far as the source of the assaults is concerned there is no question but that they proceed in the first instance from the well-known passage in Suetonius (*Jul. Cæs.*, ch. 56) where the author informs us that Asinius Pollio had entertained strong doubts concerning the credibility of Cæsar's commentaries, and was of the opinion that these had been composed with too little care and were not always truthful, inasmuch as Cæsar had given too ready credence to the exploits of others, and that he had incorrectly represented his own deeds, whether purposely or from a mistaken recollection. (*Pollio Asinius parum diligenter parumque integra veritate compositos—commentarios—putat, cum Caesar pleraque et quae per alios erant gesta, temere crediderit et quae per se, vel consulto vel etiam memoria lapsus perperam ediderit.*) His accusation has, in fact, a very serious ring inasmuch as it proceeds from a friend and comrade in arms, who according to several witnesses (*Velleius*, II, 63, *Cic. ad famil.*, X, 31), remained faithful to Cæsar to his death; and in whose case, therefore, it is impossible to impute this judgment to impure motives. According to this passage in Suetonius, Asinius Pollio was inclined to believe that if Cæsar had lived longer he would assuredly himself have corrected these errors (*existimat rescripturum et correcturum fuisse*). This then has led certain persons to test Cæsar's statements with an exactness born of suspicion, and to compare them with the accounts of later historians, namely, Dio Cassius and Appian; but if now we inquire after the results of this examination,

everything that can in any wise be alleged against the credibility of Cæsar is so trivial and unimportant that it hardly affects the question, and moreover, on these very points we can reach not certainty, but at the most merely some degree of probability. Second, an attempt has been made to disparage Cæsar's credibility from another point of view, namely, by reference to the circumstances under which the Gallic War was composed. Cæsar, it is said, in writing the books of the Gallic War (immediately before the outbreak of the Civil War) had unmistakably the intention to represent all his deeds in Gaul in the most favorable light possible, in order thereby to ingratiate himself in the favor of the Roman people. This conjecture has in itself nothing very improbable, only in reference to the facts recounted in the Gallic War it has lacked, hitherto, almost any degree of sure proof. Thus we are able to regard this objection also as refuted and the result of our examination may be considered to be this: that the Gallic War in respect not only to its form fulfills the demands proposed by us above and fully deserves the position which since ancient times it has maintained in our gymnasia.

And now a few words concerning the *Bellum Civile*. The significance of the Civil War we have already noted above. The *Bellum Civile* shows us, as it were, the gloomy reverse of the brilliant picture of strength and warlike might which is unfolded before us in the Gallic War. We see how the mighty empire, which externally is still growing, is within already beginning to decay, how all the internal organs of the state are diseased and, with their harmonious action interrupted, are arrayed in hostile combat against each other. But for anything more than a superficial understanding of the *Bellum Civile* there is necessary, just on that account, a greater ripeness of the judgment and above all a more intimate acquaintance not only with Roman history in general, but especially with the conditions of the state toward the close of the republic, with the organization of the government, the parties within it, with the position of the several parties and their leaders toward each other and toward the

senate, with the relations of the provinces to the capital, and with many other things besides, with which the younger pupils are usually not familiar. To this is added the complicated course of the war itself which is waged simultaneously at the most widely separated points and under the most diverse conditions, a circumstance that makes it difficult for the pupil to gain a comprehensive view of the entire situation. Moreover, besides the two chief party leaders on either side, there appear upon the scene so many subordinate commanders by land and sea, that the boy will scarce be able to keep in mind the most important of these and their position in the struggle. Finally, the language also of the *Bellum Civile* is more difficult than that of the Gallic War. All this makes it seem advisable to read the *Bellum Civile* only with the more advanced pupils (in *Unter-Sekunda* or *Ober-Tertia*). At this period, however, its use, without doubt, would be attended with preëminent advantages because in subject-matter and in form it satisfies the conditions required for a schoolbook no less than the work of the same author which we first discussed. After the foregoing it is to be hoped that no detailed proof of this will be required of us. To the most interesting portions in respect to subject matter belong, (1) The besieging of Pompeius in Brundisium, I, 25-29; (2) The campaign by land and sea against the rich and powerful Massilia, I, 36, 56-58, and II, 1-16, 22; (3) The war in Spain against Afranius and Petreius, I, 39-55, 59-87 (especially 64-73 and 74-77); (4) The war in Africa, II, 23-44 (especially 29-36); (5) The events at Dyrrhachium, III, 41-72; (6) The battle of Pharsalus, the flight and death of Pompeius, III, 87-103. The *Bellum Civile* is richer in individual characteristic scenes and brief episodes than the Gallic War.¹ In reference to the language and style essentially the same is true that was remarked above concerning the Gallic War, save only in the *Bellum Civile*, as we have already observed, the language is somewhat more difficult (the text here, too, is not so certain as in the former

¹*Cf.* I, 28, 69, 74-76; II, 5, 6, 7, 12, 14, 28, 35; III, 13, 19, 28, 49, 53, 71, 83, 87, 96, 98, 105.

case) and the style does not in the same degree as in the Gallic War bear the stamp of an objective calm, inasmuch as here the partisanship of the narrator cannot entirely efface itself. That this partisanship, however, on the other hand, is calculated in a certain degree to cast suspicion on the credibility of the narrative, we have already conceded, but we are compelled at the same time also to remark that even in the *Bellum Civile*, with the exception of one notorious case, no one hitherto has been able with certainty to establish that suspicion.

F. H. HOWARD

COLGATE ACADEMY

THE PREPARATORY COURSE IN LATIN¹

WHAT should be the aim of a college preparatory course in Latin? In brief the answer would be: to give the student such a grasp of the language as to enable him to take the graded courses of the college curriculum with a feeling of constantly increasing confidence and mastery of the subject as he advances to more and more difficult ground; and to cultivate in him a taste for literature which will be developed more fully in his college course. The field of the college courses in Latin includes the study of (1) the language itself, its accent and syntax; (2) the history of the language, the formation and derivation of words, their interrelation and relation to words in other languages; (3) the metrical structure of Latin poetry, the study of which involves also the study of the principles of quantity and prosody; and (4) the literature contained in the language, whether considered from the standpoint of the individual author, or the period, or the topic. Such a programme involves, besides work of a purely literary character, a study of classical history, biography, and geography.

It is to prepare for work along these lines of study that the college preparatory course should shape itself. It is true that in the college courses themselves, if they are carefully graded, each course is a direct preparation for the next. And yet the student should come into college well equipped in an elementary way in each of the subdivisions of the study just mentioned; in other words, he should have acquired through his preparatory studies such a mastery over the language as to give him power to work in it and with it with ease and pleasure.

By this power is meant especially not the power to decline nouns, conjugate verbs, and repeat rules of syntax, but the power

¹ This is the third article in a series on the studies of the secondary curriculum prepared by the Departmental Examiners of the University of Chicago.

to use the knowledge implied in all these, that is, the power to read the language. Bringing this idea into prominence does not minify but magnifies the other objects of study. For the power to read implies reading with accuracy; and this requires a thorough knowledge of form and syntax, by means of which the thought relations are shown. The reading should be with ease and speed, which involves a large and ever-increasing vocabulary, most easily gained through the study of word formation and derivation; it should be with full intelligence, which involves an understanding of the historical setting of the passages under consideration; and, finally, this reading should be with æsthetic pleasure, which comes only through the careful cultivation of a literary taste and appreciation of those finer elements which make literature out of language. To the acquisition of such power as this there is no short or easy road. For it are required much time, zeal, and patience, on the part of the pupil and teacher, and the employment of the most rational and enlightened methods. No mere rote-learning or rote-teaching will suffice. The teacher should teach out of the fullness of a large and rich preparation, knowing his subject far in advance of his teaching. He should be himself always a student, continually entering new fields, especially in his own department, in order to enlarge his own horizon and to keep in sympathy with his own students. The ideal teacher will teach as one having authority, the authority not of others, but of his own discoveries. He will be himself the embodiment of the high and broad scholarship which he desires his pupils to attain.

The time necessary for the attainment of a ready knowledge of Latin will vary with different students and with different methods and surroundings. But the consensus of opinion among educators, confirmed by the practice of the best schools, has established four years as the minimum length of the preparatory Latin course, and the tendency is to increase rather than diminish this period of preparation by beginning Latin in the last year of the grammar school.

The university has not hitherto attempted to outline any

Latin course preparatory to its examinations for admission, nor to suggest the amount of Latin in the several authors that should be covered by the student. It has been content to state the general scope of each of the five examinations which it offers each quarter. Its only stipulation has been, so far as its examinations are concerned, that the student should show an ability to read at sight easy Latin prose and poetry, and to render into Latin a connected passage of simple idiomatic English. But the college has a right to expect from the preparatory school far more in the way of training than can possibly be touched upon, and much more than can be adequately tested in an examination. For this reason, and in response to repeated requests from different schools, an attempt will here be made to outline at some length the amount and character of the work for each year of a four years' preparatory course.

THE WORK OF THE FIRST YEAR

The young student's progress at the beginning of the study of Latin will depend much upon his previous training in language, and it is greatly to be desired that he shall have gained through the study of English at least the various technical language terms and ideas, such as the different parts of speech, what a sentence is, the various elements in a sentence, necessary agreement between these, etc. Whether or not the student has already mastered these ideas, the teacher should take little for granted at first, and should present these technical concepts with the utmost simplicity and care, with frequent repetition and illustration. Experience, even with college students, shows that the learner is often unconscious of the fact that he has not finished a sentence, and leaves the thought hanging in the air. This grave fault, so hard to remove from the adult student, can be easily prevented if the child from the first is trained to *feel* the various sentence relations, and to know when the full thought has been expressed. He ought never to consult an abstract principle before expressing the subject of a finite verb in the nominative case. He should be so accustomed to this

through constant training from the first that he would feel a distinct shock if by chance any other case form should be presented in this relation. If this subconscious knowledge of sentence relation is ever to be attained the student must from the first study sentences, and words as found in sentences, and not isolated words or phrases. In this way, that is, from a study of the actual Latin sentence, the student should get his first knowledge of all the details of the language—the case forms, the gender endings, the adjectival, pronominal, adverbial, and verbal forms, together with the various thought relations which these forms indicate. It is well to learn paradigms, to formulate principles of syntax, and even to make these abstract principles matter for drill, but these forms and principles, which have no reason whatever for existence except as they enter into the expression of thought, should never be presented to the student in the first instance except as they are illustrated in the concrete sentence. In this way the student not only learns, for example, a case form, but learns at the same time the *sentence meaning*, or the meaning in the sentence of that form. And ever afterwards the principle illustrated in this example will be to him a real rather than a conventional thing.

Besides these ideas of word relations, the problem before the student is to learn words themselves. This is of the greatest importance. For students often find themselves unable to read Latin with ease, not because they do not understand the *structure* of the language, but because they do not have a sufficient vocabulary to enable them to understand even ordinary Latin. In order to attain this vocabulary the student should from the beginning be urged to master and make his own all the words which he meets in the text that he is studying, and he should be taught some of the best methods for accomplishing this end. He should be led to see how close a relation exists between many Latin words and English words, and at the same time should be warned that many Latin words do not have the same meaning that the corresponding English words have; and that in many forms of expression Latin and English do not agree.

This fact should give the study and comparison of idioms early prominence. In connection with the discussion of this subject of vocabulary, one grave fault of some text-books should be mentioned in passing: that of introducing into illustrative sentences words which are either not classical at all, or at least are not used in the authors which the student is to read early in his course. It is poor economy of time and effort, to say the least, to have the student learn such words as "Samuel," "Edith," "rose," "doll," "cat," etc. If the object of the study of Latin is the ability to read the classical authors, surely a strictly classical vocabulary should be used from the first.

When should the student begin to translate Latin? If the power to read Latin may properly be considered as the main object of the study, it follows that the reading or translation should begin with the first lesson. This must of course, at the start, be simple Latin, but it should be real, classical Latin and not made-up, modern Latin, entirely removed from the thought and spirit of the times when Latin was a living language. What a real translation is should be early understood. It is not merely a transfer of words or language, but of *thought*; it is the expression of thought, originally stated in one language, in terms of another. Hence Latin-English should never be allowed in a translation, but such terms in English should be found as shall perfectly convey the thought in the original Latin to the English mind. As has already been said, the proper object of study is the complete sentence. It should be considered, so far as possible, as a unit, and comprehended as such. While it is necessary to recognize the several parts or elements of the sentence in order to understand the way in which the sentence is put together, still this analysis should be made as informal as possible rather than given the most prominent place in the study. If such sentence analysis is made too prominent, if the mind is concentrated on the *anatomy* of the sentence, picking out the subject, predicate, and various modifiers of each before any attempt is made to grasp the thought of the sentence, the chances are that much of the thought will be lost. The *sentence* thought is

not complete until the sentence is complete; but the various concepts which go to make up the whole thought may be grasped as they are presented one by one in the sentence, and understood by the translator. And so the sentence thought gradually unfolds itself to him just as it did to the Roman himself. It follows that the Latin *phrase* order at least, if not the Latin *word* order, as a method of translation is much preferred to to be the sentence-analysis method.

Much may be said in favor of not translating at all, but grasping the thought directly from the Latin without the intervention of English words. This is certainly possible if the student is early accustomed to do it. To this end much practice in reading aloud should be had, both in the class room and in the study. This should not be a mere pronunciation of the Latin words; the passage should be read with the use of all those devices of vocal inflection, emphasis, and pauses which serve to indicate thought in *any* real *reading*.

While this method of reading Latin would meet the main object of the study as suggested above, *i. e.*, the *power to read*, still, if this alone were pursued, certain valuable subsidiary ends which are to be gained only by translation would be lost. Some of these are the mental drill acquired by a linguistic study which requires careful observation, perception of fine shades of meaning and of word relation, together with the exercise of a nice judgment in deciding between different syntactic possibilities. Translation, in the second place, leads, as almost no other agent does, to the enlargement of one's English vocabulary and the perfecting of one's English style.

In consideration of these values, translation is recommended as the ordinary practice, while the frequent reading and hearing of Latin are recognized as most valuable assistance to this

So much has been said of translation in the first year's work because it is here above all that wise methods must be adopted. The habits of study in any subject which the student acquires in his first year are very apt to follow him throughout his course, and no amount of excellent teaching in his later years can

entirely remove the bad effect of wrong methods here. And at the same time all that is said here as to methods of translation applies with equal force to the work of the later years.

Sight reading, or the power to read Latin at sight, upon which so much stress has rightly been laid in recent years, has been in mind as the aim in all that has been said above. While especially prepared work and review work must be given a large place both in the study and in the class room, still these, if rightly considered, are only a means to an end, and every such exercise should be looked upon as one more step toward a more perfect acquisition of the power to use the language without previous careful study. Frequent if not daily tests of this power should be made by giving the student some passage to read which he has not already studied. It is *practice* only, and practice from the start, that can produce the desired result.

If translation should be one of the earliest activities of the young student of a foreign language, certainly the same should be said of composition, or the expression in the foreign language of thought which has already been expressed in the mother tongue. In German and English schools, if one may judge from the very great prominence given to this part of the work, the study of Latin composition is almost an end in itself. Without so exalting it, however, we certainly hold it to be true that there is no better exercise than this for producing in the student an accurate knowledge of words, forms, and syntactic principles, together with fluency in the use of these. It is by this means that the drill on forms and principles should be conducted. Instead of a drill upon paradigms, which amounts too often to a glib repetition of words without a thought of their real meaning, the student should be required to compose Latin sentences which bring into use all the different word forms upon which the drill is desired. By this means accurate knowledge and practice in the use of this knowledge is gained, not only of the inflectional endings themselves, but also of the thought relations which these endings indicate as the various words combine to complete a sentence. Exercise in composition is also the best help in the

acquisition of a Latin vocabulary. As this vocabulary is most easily made up of the words found in the Latin passage which the pupil is studying, supplemented perhaps by a careful selection of related words from other sources, so the sentences for composition exercise should be made up of words selected from the daily reading, and should illustrate at the same time the syntactic principles which it is especially desired to impress upon the student's mind. Here there has been a great advance in text-book making. The writers of such books are recognizing the principle that translation and composition should be mutually helpful, and are basing the composition exercises entirely upon the text which the student is reading.

What, then, should the student know of Latin at the end of the first year of a four years' course? It is difficult to speak categorically upon such a subject, but it may safely be said that the results of the first year's study should include:

A, as to word forms.—(1) The inflectional endings, with nominative and stem formation of regular nouns in each of the five declensions; (2) the regular comparison of adjectives, together with such irregulars as *facilis*, *miser*, etc., and *bonus*, *malus*, *magnus*, *parvus*, and *multus*; (3) the inflection of personal, demonstrative, reflexive, possessive, and relative pronouns, with a knowledge of the difference in meaning between the demonstratives *hic*, *ille*, and *iste*, and a clear conception of the third reflexive pronoun, both personal and possessive—a weak point even with many advanced students; (4) the principles of the formation of the regular verb and of the more common irregulars in the singular and plural of all modes and tenses, together with all infinitives and participles, with the meaning of each form.

B, as to independent or individual word meanings.—The student's knowledge here should embrace a vocabulary of several hundred Latin words found, say, in Cæsar, or whatever other Latin author is read in the first and second years. With each substantive in this list he should be able to use a gender-revealing adjective. As a necessary help to the acquisition of a vocabulary, the meaning of the commoner derivative endings,

with their method of combining with simple stems, should be mastered.

C, as to dependent or constructional meanings of words as they combine with other words in a sentence—that is, the thought-conveying force of the various cases, if of substantives, and of the various modal and temporal elements of the verb. In nouns this should include only the more common uses of the oblique cases, in each of which the real or original meaning should be understood, and the others grouped so far as possible around this. In verbs the simpler modal uses should be mastered.

D, as to the agreement of closely related words.—(1) Of adjective with noun; (2) of pronoun with antecedent; (3) of appositive with substantive; and (4) of finite verb with subject.

In all that has been said above it is understood that in no case should the student's mind be unnecessarily burdened by any word, form, or principle which will be of no value to him in his more immediate future study; say, of the next year or two. Rare words, exceptional forms, unusual constructions may well be left to be learned as they appear in later study. But the word forms and constructions that are occurring all the time should be absolutely mastered at the end of the first year. Alas! they are sometimes not mastered at the end of the sixth year.

*E, That which should be acquired in addition to all that is mentioned in the above category, and without which all this is of little value, is the ability to use this knowledge by unconscious application in the reading of easy Latin prose. Perhaps it is better to say that the student should have acquired a *method* of study which will make all his succeeding work easy and pleasurable, for all the rest will be a progress along well-defined and well-used lines of thought and work.*

The *amount* of Latin which the student may have read at the end of his first year is perhaps of secondary consideration, especially if he has gained the knowledge and power described above. But it is undoubtedly true that the first-year class ordinarily does not read enough Latin. If the first Latin text-book is based upon a Latin text and the daily lessons include progress

in the reading of this text, if not more than a sentence or two at a time, at least from ten to twenty pages of Cæsar or some other simple Latin may easily be covered by beginners during the course of their first year.

THE WORK OF THE SECOND YEAR

If the work of the first year has been accomplished along the line suggested above, there would be no perceptible change as the student enters upon the work of his second year. He will long since have been introduced to his author, in respect at least to vocabulary and style. He has learned to read Latin and is in easy control of all those ordinary forms and principles which are indispensable to progress.

But what are the facts? It is too often the case that now for the first time the student is expected to read connected Latin. Not finding the page conveniently broken up into short sentences, with printed topics at the head of each group pointing out what construction he is expected to meet, he is bewildered; he has carefully conned forms and constructions, but their use he associates with isolated sentences selected to bring out certain specified principles, and he is not prepared to meet these in the kaleidoscopic order which they assume in the longer and connected passage.

If, however, this is not the case, rapid progress may be expected at once. Here should begin a much fuller and more systematic topical study of case and mode uses, idiomatic expressions, and other points which a fuller and more accurate knowledge of the language requires, as they are developed in the reading. It should be the chief aim of the second year to fix and greatly enlarge the knowledge of the *structure* of the language, and this can best be done only by systematic work. Immense advantage is gained by making lists of illustrations of the various principles of construction that are met, so that the student can speak with the authority of first-hand knowledge of at least one author's Latinity.

It is an open question whether much else than distinctively

language study should be undertaken during the second year. If it cannot be done except to the detriment of the language study, certainly matter of a more general nature should not be introduced. And yet, with the exercise of discretion, much biographical, historical, and geographical material may be incidentally and very profitably introduced. These things, however, at least in the second year, should receive very secondary attention, and should be employed for the sake of variety and relief rather than as an end in themselves.

While Cæsar's Gallic War has almost exclusively occupied the field of the second-year Latin course, frequent objection has been raised that this is too difficult Latin for the young student; and diligent search has been made for a more suitable text, but with only indifferent success. While such books as Nepos' *Lives* and the *Viri Romæ*, so well edited in recent years, together with several books of easy Latin selections, make excellent supplementary reading, they have not proved to have that enduring nutritive quality which second-year linguistic pabulum should have. It is probable, therefore, that, notwithstanding the great objection on the score of difficulty which is very properly made, Cæsar's Gallic War will continue to hold the most prominent place in the second-year programme.

If a good start has been gained in the reading of the first year, at least four books of this commentary should be read in the second year, with large supplementary reading in the remaining books or in the authors just mentioned.

Composition should accompany translation as a daily exercise. The nature and importance of this work has no new function to serve, and the aim of this exercise should be still to drill the student in the forms and principles already acquired, to fix in his mind the new material as it is met daily, and to give him greater and greater fluency in the use of these. Longer and more complex sentences should be attempted than were admissible in the earlier study, with the intention of leading up to paragraph structure in the more advanced composition work of the following year.

Here, again, admirable text-books are at hand for the teacher's use, with graded sentences advancing from simple to more complex; not isolated, and changing the general subject with each sentence, but grouped so as to form simple paragraphs. These sentence groups have the advantage which other sentence arrangements have not, that is, the introduction of those inevitable loosely connecting particles with which the Roman used to weld the sentences of his paragraph into a compact whole. These particles, so important to the full understanding of a passage, but so difficult to master without much practice, should certainly be introduced into the Latin composition of the second year.

What distinct gain, then, should the student have made at the end of his second year?

The answer to this question has already been anticipated a few pages back in the advocacy of the topical and systematic study of the Latinity of Cæsar, so far as this includes the principles of syntax there mentioned. The subject of indirect discourse, so important in the study of all authors, and so difficult if not well mastered early in the study and once for all, is especially important for the understanding of Cæsar, and, on the other hand, many chapters of the Gallic War furnish exceptional facilities for the study of this subject. And in the principles of indirect discourse the end of the second year should find the student well versed.

THE WORK OF THE THIRD YEAR

If the structure of the language has been well mastered, and the student has gained some facility in the reading of Latin, the foundation has been laid for a step forward in the work, and one of a nature somewhat distinct from the work of the first two years. Heretofore, little if anything could be done in the cultivation of a literary appreciation of Latin, or the study of the Latin author from a literary or at least from a rhetorical point of view. But with the beginning of the third year this element in the study should be given some prominence.

Those who plan the preparatory Latin course in the schools differ as to the author to be selected at this point. The orations of Cicero have long held almost undisputed sway in the third year, but objection is made to this on the ground that prose has been the object of the student's study during the entire course up to this point, and that his interest needs the stimulus of a change of style. This change, the objectors say, will be found in Latin poetry, for instance, of Vergil or Ovid. Agreeing with what has just been said as to the importance of the literary element in study, they urge that a piece of Latin which has a distinct literary value should now be placed before the student. They urge also, on the ground of a better gradation, that Vergil should precede Cicero, asserting that the *Æneid* is easier than the orations.

These positions do not seem to be well taken, either in respect to greater variety, or better gradation. In the first place, while the orations of Cicero are in prose, they are so far removed from the prose of Cæsar or any simply narrative literature as to furnish abundant stimulus to the student through the element of variety. Again, there is a distinct advance over the Gallic War in the point of literary interest. Not that Cæsar is lacking in literary merit, for his strong, terse, direct style has won him just praise as a writer; but the orator has opportunity for the use of rhetorical devices which are not within the reach of the historian. And Cicero has made full use of all his oratorical privileges. These new literary models, by the very force of contrast, compel the student's interest and attention, and lead him by an easy and natural process into the study of Latin as literature and of literary devices in Latin. In Cicero we have the best product of the Roman art of rhetoric, and the student can have no better guide to the study of elegant Latin shaped to express fine thought than the man who could make the defense of poetry seem natural in a court of law.

So far as gradation is concerned some passages of the *Æneid* are undoubtedly easier than some passages of Cicero's orations; but when we take into consideration the wide differ-

ence between prose and poetic style, involving a substantially new vocabulary, new constructions allowed to poetic license, and the many new subjects of study that such a piece of literature as the *Aeneid* suggests, the step from Cæsar to Vergil seems not only greater than that from Cæsar to Cicero, but so great as to seem entirely impracticable.

If it be admitted, then, that the orations of Cicero are the natural successor to the Gallic War, what should be the main feature in the Latin study of the third year? By all means the progress in the study of language structure should continue by daily observations of the living sentence and by topical analysis of constructions. If the first and second persons of the verb have not already been mastered these should now be added to the forms previously learned, since in the orations there is abundant illustration of these. But the distinct advance should be made in the direction already indicated, that is, of the study of literary prose. The different kinds of sentence should be studied—balanced, loose, periodic—and the rhetorical effect of each observed; the value in oratorical force of the rhetorical question; the manner in which Cicero constructed his paragraph, compacted and complete in thought. The student should be led to see that these are *orations*, intended not only to be spoken, but to carry conviction to the minds of the listeners. Hence the translation should also have oratorical spirit and power. If the Latin is read—as it by all means should be—it should be delivered with some oratorical effect, not merely pronounced—a task comparatively easy of accomplishment if once the student enters into the spirit of the author. The best way to lead him into the spirit is for the teacher himself to give illustrations of the kind of Latin reading here described.

And now, contrary to what was said as to historical and biographical material in connection with the work of the second year, a study of the life and times of Cicero is indispensable, not only to the right understanding of the many historical allusions, but, more important still, to the ability to enter into the spirit of the orator, the need of which has just been emphasized.

This material may, if it is deemed wise, be presented informally and incidentally, but it should none the less be clearly understood by the student.

Prose composition should be a frequent if not daily accompaniment of the reading of the text, just as in the second year. And here again, as in the study of the text, the advanced step should be in the direction of the mastery of the sentence group or paragraph; and an attempt should be made, though it will be of necessity elementary, to imitate something of Cicero's style.

Under favorable conditions, if Cicero is read throughout the year, at least the four Catilinian orations and the oration for the Manilian Law, or their equivalents, should be studied intensively, while the oration for Archias and perhaps one or two others should be read somewhat more rapidly, for practice in understanding at sight or at hearing. At least one oration should be most carefully analyzed as to thought, in order to get, not sentence or paragraph structure alone, but oration structure in the large. The best oration for this purpose is by all means the one in advocacy of the Manilian Law.

THE WORK OF THE FOURTH YEAR

To the majority of students in secondary schools the fourth year of Latin is the last year. For the sake of those, as well as of those also who are preparing for further study in college, the æsthetic element in Roman literature should be presented more fully than could have been attempted in the third year. The orations were true literature, but not the highest type of literature. They presented, it is true, a model for the study of what is finest in rhetorical expressions, but in the nature of the case that literary excellence which consists in beauty and variety of thought could not reach perfection in forensic discourse. Literature reaches its highest development in poetry, and it is to the poets that we must turn for material for the fourth year's study.

The choice of poets suited to students at this stage seems to lie between two only, Virgil and Ovid, and probably the great

poems of each of these will never yield to the lesser works of either, though these furnish excellent supplementary material. While these two authors are mentioned together, Vergil is the undisputed superior, and the *Æneid* will undoubtedly continue to hold the leading place which it has always held, with selections from Ovid as an important supplement.

At the outset the teacher is confronted with many different subjects for consideration and study. Since this is the student's introduction to poetry, of course the poetic form must receive attention; hence the subject of prosody must be considered. The subject of the life and times of Vergil himself is of no small importance to him who would enter upon an intensive study of this great poem. Virgil's place in the literature of his own country, his relation to and dependence upon Greek literature, his influence upon scholars and writers who have come after him—these are subjects of great importance. Some attention should be given to the epic, its characteristics, its exemplification in different literatures, a comparison of the *Æneid* with these. But the main object of study is, of course, the *Æneid* itself, its story, its poetic diction, its rhetorical perfection, its charm of thought. It is not to be supposed that all or any one of these phases of the subject can be studied in any but an elementary way by the boys and girls in the secondary school, but a taste of the best is the surest means of forming a taste for the best, and insuring further study along the same lines in later years.

Which of these many subjects for study in Vergil should be undertaken first? While opinion may differ here, it is probably wiser not to spend much time in preliminary study of the poem with its historical and literary setting, but to do as Vergil himself has done in the unfolding of his plot—plunge at once into the poem, and let the poem itself be the center around which all related material shall be grouped, and from which the literary content of the poem shall be gained.

Very early in the course, however, the poetic form should receive careful attention. This subject will be very easily

grasped if from the beginning of the study of Latin proper attention has been given to the quantity of syllables as an actual matter of pronunciation.

If, for instance, the student has learned the quantity at least of the various end elements at the same time that he learned the elements themselves, he will have very little, if any, difficulty now, so far as the principles of quantity are concerned, upon which the metrical structure in Latin rests. The work in prosody will then be very simple—the principles of elision (or slurring), hiatus, cæsure, foot substitutions, etc.; and the student will, with some practice, especially in reading the verses aloud, very soon find himself master of the dactylic hexameter. The progress in reading should at first be somewhat deliberate, until the student has become familiar with the new style, and has acquired facility in metrical reading. The year's work then might easily cover at least six books of the *Æneid* carefully read, with much rapid reading besides in Ovid or in other portions of Vergil's works.

FRANK J. MILLER

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

REPORT OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE LATIN AND
GREEK CONFERENCE, HELD AT ANN ARBOR,
MICH., APRIL 2, 1897

THE Latin and Greek conference, held in conjunction with the spring meeting of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, awakened the keen and active interest of the classical teachers and students, not only of Michigan but as well of adjacent states, and the fullest credit must be given the classical department of the University of Michigan for the stimulus and inspiration which this and the preceding classical conference have given to the teachers of Latin and Greek in Michigan and elsewhere. These conferences are stimulating the scholarship, improving the methods and dignifying the callings of the teachers of the classics in our secondary schools, and their influence both for the appreciation and enrichment of classical study and teaching is hardly to be overestimated.

The morning session of the conference was held in Room 24 of the university building and was presided over by Professor Kelsey.

The session was devoted to a consideration of the aim and character of the first year's work in Latin and was opened with a paper by Miss L. M. Shaw, of Bay City. After a brief introduction designed to bring out the larger and truer meaning of the word "practical" as bearing upon "practical" studies, Miss Shaw goes on to say:

This paper, fortunately, begins at that point where the *Q. E. D.* as to the practical value of classical studies has been uttered. If it is true, then—to quote from a writer in the February number of the *Atlantic*—that "classical literature at its best does not tend to induce in us a certain state of the feelings, much less a certain state of the nerves; it appeals rather to our higher reason and imagination—to those faculties which afford us an avenue of escape from ourselves and enable us to become participants in the universal

life," it follows that a goodly number should be persuaded to enter upon such study.

Now the entrance door is in the ninth grade, the first high-school grade, and what the vestibule shall offer of interest and profit has much to do with the desire to open the doors into the splendid rooms beyond. In approaching the work of the first year, the previous environment and training must be taken into consideration. There is, as we all know, a vast gulf set between the eighth and ninth grades. Up to the high school there has been the constant supervision of the teacher, both in recitations and study hours; now the pupil is, to a great extent, left to his own devices. The wonder is that so often the new responsibilities are met so well. The nature of the work is also different. Attainment is as pleasing to the child as to the man; discouragement has an uplifting influence on only a few rare souls. The lessons, then, must be simple enough to be thoroughly grasped by these immature minds, but difficult enough to stimulate to fresh effort; in short, the golden mean between work which enervates the energies by its luxurious ease and work which paralyzes them by its excessive rigor.

The study of beginning Latin, properly presented, is peculiarly adapted to meet the emergencies of the first year of the high-school course. The memory is not taxed now, as it would be later, by the learning of the paradigms and the storing up of a vocabulary; while the developing judgment and critical powers are strengthened just enough by the observation and comparison required in order to do the elementary work well.

And now what should this elementary work be?

When the first year draws to a close, there should have been acquired a good working vocabulary, an accurate knowledge of the etymology and the general principles of the syntax, a reasonable facility in putting simple English into simple, idiomatic Latin, and some appreciation of Latin life, customs, and events. This latter knowledge will go far towards maintaining interest and stimulating the imaginative faculty.

In the Latin schools of Boston the requirements two years ago — and it is not known that a change has been made since — were as follows: "(1) Regular forms, with simple exercises illustrating their use. (2) *a.* Oral and written translation of easy Latin into English. *b.* Unprepared translation of easy Latin with the help of the teacher. (3) *a.* Reading aloud, copying, and writing from dictation Latin simple in construction and composed of words familiar to the pupils. *b.* Simple oral and written translation of English into Latin." "Beginners," it is also recommended, "should hear much easy Latin read and translated and should read aloud the same or similar passages and translate them into English so that Latin words, the changes in their forms, and the force of these changes may become familiar. A few Latin words should be added each day to the vocabulary of the pupils."

It may be argued that their work covers six years, while ours must be

compressed into four. "'Tis true, 'tis pity ; pity 'tis, 'tis true," so far as we are concerned. In some schools the beginning Latin has been transferred to the eighth grade, and in time this may become more generally advisable. Doubtless this method of gaining time would enrich the grammar school, lessen the gap between it and the high school, and help to solve an economic problem. Meantime, the temptation to crowd and do much work at the expense of good work must be guarded against.

Just at this point a word might be said about the text-book — a word scarcely necessary if the beginning work were not so often in the hands of young and inexperienced teachers. The books, as a rule, have held too much. The teacher, conscientious and enthusiastic, sees that everything is done thoroughly at first ; but as the weeks glide by, she begins to have a morbid consciousness that matters are not so satisfactory as they were. If the books were made smaller, the condensation would be all along the line. There seems to be now a tendency in the right direction as regards this matter. Several apparently practical books have appeared. It is hoped that the discussion to follow will reveal what ones have stood the actual test.

The present beginning Cæsar class of the Bay City school, a class that is a constant source of delight to its present teacher, was prepared for her by another teacher in a way somewhat similar to that of the schools already referred to. The reading, however, was done in the *Bellum Helveticum*, since that is the text-book in use. English sentences, taken from Jones' *First Latin Lessons*, were turned into Latin, and there was a great amount of drill work in etymology and ordinary syntax. Short, simple stories, breathing an atmosphere of Greece and Rome, might be substituted for the *Bellum Helveticum*. They would be valuable in that they would appeal to a variety of tastes ; would not compel the learner, engaged in comprehending the machinery of the language, to disentangle too often the threads of the narrative ; and would offer a more comprehensive view of the life, character, and customs of the Latin and kindred peoples.

But quality should never be subservient to quantity. *Multum in parvo* is a much better motto than *parvum in multo*, and produces far better results. Accuracy and thoroughness in the etymology and ordinary syntax should be insisted upon in the first year, not to make grammatical pedants but to serve as a wise means to a good end — that end, an appreciative love for a noble literature.

Happy are the young learners who, having done their work thus in the first year, are better able, because untrammelled by meager knowledge of what should be as familiar to them as is the English alphabet, to approach, with some idea of its literary worth, their first Latin masterpiece. As the years wear away may the teaching be so wise from first to last that there shall be a steadily increasing number of those who shall come to understand the deeper meaning and philosophy of the classics, and to see that the study of the humanities is

not altogether foreign to the study of humanity in relation to its achievements, its problems, and its needs. "Ceteros pudeat, si qui ita se litteris abdiderunt, ut nihil possint ex iis neque ad communem adferre fructum neque in aspectum lucemque proferre," said Cicero.

Professor B. L. D'Ooge, of the Michigan State Normal School, opened the discussion as follows:

MR. CHAIRMAN, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:

I am sure we have all listened to the paper with approval. Certainly no subject could be suggested more vitally connected with the success of our whole Latin course than this. In all educational questions there are two prime factors to be considered, the subject taught and the teacher. What methods are to be employed in the teaching of first year Latin depends upon the view we take of the subject. Is it to be pursued merely for its disciplinary value or is its aim to open to the student the door to Roman literature, that he may gain access to the best thought and life of ancient Rome? The former view of the subject will lead us to the old time methods of formal culture, where grammar and syntax sit enthroned and where a rule is valuable in proportion to the difficulty and the number of its exceptions. If the latter be the aim, then we are to lead the pupil by the shortest and quickest way to reading knowledge of the language, and everything is to be bent to the securing of that end, and grammar and syntax are of value only so far as they assist in accomplishing the desired result. The old teaching of Latin has given place to the new, and we are all, nominally at least, making by the shortest route for the Elysian fields of Latin literature. I question, however, whether we have yet laid aside the old and put on the new as fully as we think we have, and whether we are not still exalting the study of syntax with beginners beyond what is wise or pedagogically sound. We are in a transition period as to books and methods. I have made something of a study of this matter by an examination of the books and methods used in other countries and especially of those used by the *sexta* and *quinta*, the two lowest classes in German schools. To be sure, they have more time than we, but they spend nearly two years with scarcely any formal study of syntax, and they spend more than a year before taking up formally a single subjunctive construction. During the first two years the work consists of a thorough mastery of the paradigms, and of a very large amount of translating, sight reading, and writing of the simplest Latin. All this is done with no formal attempt to teach syntax, which is taken up in *quarta* and *unter tertia*, the third and fourth years, largely by the inductive study of what has been read during the first two years. Our curriculum does not permit of our following this method in full, but the comparison suggests that we make too much of syntax and not enough of form study and the building of vocabulary. A student who knows his forms and has a good vocabulary will find little difficulty in translating

ordinary Latin, especially if he has read enough to make him fairly familiar with Roman sentence structure. He will have far less trouble than the one who has neglected these for the study of syntax. What is more, the German method is pedagogically sound. Children memorize easily. They master forms and vocabularies without any trouble as they never can again. On the other hand the abstract relations of the parts of speech are none too easy for the adult mind. Some of our best books are publishing lists of words related by root or by some other association. We should have more of these and students should begin systematic memorizing of such lists from the very outset. With these vocabularies is used an abundance of easy reading and writing. Our exercises both for translation and writing are too short, too few, and too hard. I believe that a book for beginners that should carry out these ideas, adapting them to our conditions and time limitations would be very cordially welcomed.

I said at the outset that the second prime factor in every educational question was the teacher. I wish to touch on this in conclusion. Students in our normal schools who have had perhaps three or four years of Latin, come to me often with the question "Don't you think I could teach at least one or two years of Latin?" To all such I give an emphatic negative reply. The longer I teach, the more important these first years become to my mind, and the greater seems the knowledge and skill necessary to teach them properly. The best preparation and the strongest teacher are none too good for the first year of Latin. A proper understanding of the relative value of one point as compared with another, a fine sense of perspective that gives everything its proper emphasis, the knowing of what not to say as well as of what to say, the best method of presentation for each difficult point, all these come only by long experience and thorough preparation, and all of these are demanded in a supreme degree from the teacher of first year Latin.

The discussion was continued by Principal E. V. Robinson, of Muskegon, Mich.

What I shall say on this subject merely reflects my present opinion. Having been converted several times already, I am ready to be converted again whenever a better way is discovered. It is needless, therefore, to add that I do not mean to assert anything dogmatically.

When I first taught Latin, I thought it necessary to teach the whole of Jones. But experience has convinced me that at least twenty lessons should be omitted, the time thus gained being devoted to oral work, the reading of easy Latin, etc. I would omit a few of the uncommon uses of the cases, together with the whole subject of finite moods in subordinate clauses. What remains should be taught with merciless thoroughness.

This applies particularly to *forms*. A pupil who knows his forms and no syntax to speak of, is in much better condition for second year work than one

who has attempted so much that he is sure of nothing. I believe time devoted to the syntax of subordinate clauses, during the first year, to be worse than wasted.

Vocabularies should be learned in the form of model sentences. The learning of isolated, unrelated words is like lifting a dead weight; it can be done, but it is a great waste of time and strength. The memorizing of selections in Latin, preferably poetry, should continue throughout the entire course. What is thus memorized is assimilated and becomes as it were an integral part of the pupil himself: a result which no amount of mere translating will attain. Other methods tending to the same end are sight reading and impromptu composition, the pupil being required to translate back into Latin what he has just read, with certain specified changes in tense, mode, voice, etc. Translation from and into Latin by ear instead of by eye is also a profitable exercise.

I must confess, however, that in my opinion we shall never succeed in making our pupils feel, as German gymnasium students do, that Latin is their second mother tongue, until we adopt the German method of doing it—that is, until we begin Latin at least two years earlier than at present, and teach it from the beginning as a spoken as well as a written language. If this reform is to be made, it must begin, like most educational reforms, with the teachers. So long as Latin remains, as it is to most of us in America, emphatically a dead language, our pupils cannot be blamed if they occasionally wish it had never been resurrected.

The next speaker was Professor Francis W. Kelsey.

Professor Kelsey laid emphasis on the importance of the work of the first year in Latin. Unless this is well done, errors become fixed that can never be eradicated and wrong points of view may more easily be acquired than at a later stage. If there is any difference at all in the quality of the teacher's work, his very best efforts should be put forth in training beginners. The speaker favored a free use of simple sentences in the first year, with abundant colloquial exercise; as soon as possible students should be led to construct simple paragraphs, using sentences that have some relation with one another rather than isolated sentences. Especial pains should be taken to insure the greatest possible accuracy in all class-room work; so far as possible the student should be allowed to see and hear only that which is correct.

He said also that the first year Latin should be made interesting; that a properly equipped teacher can hardly fail to inspire a class with a feeling of devotion to the study. Only that teacher is "properly equipped" who has a first-hand knowledge of the Latin literature sufficient to enable him to speak intelligently of the various authors and their works, and a mastery of the language such as to make it easy for him to use Latin words, phrases, and sentences freely and accurately in giving instruction; who has

such a knowledge also of the history, art, and public and private life of the Greeks and Romans that every passage of an author will suggest to him something that gives insight into the civilization for which he stands as an interpreter.

The greater portion of the afternoon was given to the reading and discussion of a paper on "Greek in Secondary Schools," prepared by Professor Hamilton King, Principal of the preparatory department of Olivet College.

Professor King prefaced his remarks by stating that the following letter had been sent out to over one hundred leading teachers of Greek. These teachers represent both the higher institutions of learning and the secondary schools of sixteen states.

GREEK IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

DEAR SIR: In preparing students in the subject of Greek for entrance to the colleges and universities of our country, teachers recognize several ends direct and indirect toward which they work.

Among these may be named:

- (1) General culture.
- (2) Mental discipline.
- (3) Ability to read Greek readily, *i. e.*, Greek that has not been seen before.
- (4) Elegance of translation.
- (5) Ability to write Greek.
- (6) Acquaintance with the literature.
- (7) Introduction to the study of language in general.

The work we are considering is preëminently to *prepare* students for the further study of the same general subject in the higher institutions. This higher study will naturally have for its object some of the ends named above. Taking these facts into consideration, together with the development of the pupils in the preparatory schools, will you give me your opinion on the following questions?

(1) Which of the above named ought to be the *immediate* object of the study of Greek in our schools that prepare for college and university courses in Greek?

(2) To what extent should the following points be emphasized in this training?

- (a) Syntax.
- (b) Forms.
- (c) Vocabularies.

- (d) Reading at sight.
- (e) Translation.
- (f) Geography and history.

I wish to prepare a paper on "Greek in our Secondary Schools," and have taken this way to give it a practical turn. Please express yourself as briefly or as fully as you may wish upon any of the points named, or upon any other features of the question that may be of interest to you. I desire especially that you give your judgment on what *ought* to be done, without reference to what is now being done.

Most cordially,

HAMILTON KING

OLIVET COLLEGE, PREPARATORY DEPARTMENT,
Olivet, Mich., February 21, 1896.

Forty-one replies were received.

To the question, "What ought to be the *immediate* object of the study of Greek in our schools that prepare for college and university courses in Greek?"

Thirty-one said: "Ability to read Greek readily, *i. e.*, Greek that has not been seen before."

Five said: "General culture or mental discipline, or both."

Two said: "Elegance of translation."

Two, without specifying the object, would emphasize drill on *forms*, *common syntax*, and *vocabularies*.

Thus it is seen that three-fourths of the replies were a unit on the *immediate* object to be sought, while the other one-quarter was divided into at east three groups.

In the answers to the question, "What points should be emphasized in he training?" the following appears:

(a) All agree that thorough drill in *forms* should take first place.

(b) With perhaps but six exceptions the feeling obtains that *syntax* must be carefully taught as an aid to the reading, but that too much attention has been given to it in the past. Syntax deserves attention in the secondary schools, not as a study, but as a means to the end in view.

(c) Thirty of the forty-one would give vocabularies special attention outside of the drill on the words as they are found in the reading lessons.

(d) Twenty-nine recognize sight reading or sight translation as valuable. The amount advised varies from every day during the course to the last part of the last year of the course.

(e) Writing Greek in simple sentences is recognized as one of the best *means*, not an end, for training in forms and syntax.

(a) There comes a call in some of the strongest letters that the work of the first three years be confined to Attic Greek.

(b) With this comes a call for easier reading books.

(c) Emphasis is laid upon the pronunciation of the language with an eye to the sense.

The composite mental picture which these letters gives is this: In return for two years of faithful work we ought to give to the student of Greek in our secondary schools "Ability to read simple prose Greek and to understand it *as* he reads." "This should be accomplished by (1) emphasizing *drill* on forms, (2) the common principles of syntax, (3) vocabularies, (4) writing simple Greek, (5) reading and translating at sight, (6) together with critical study of the text at all times in review translations."

Now these letters are either the honest expression of the authors, or, believing something else, the authors have given expression to what they feel they *ought* to believe.

The students of Greek in our schools are as hard workers as we have. We are not dealing justly with these young people if for two years of such labor as they give to us we give them in return merely the ability to *re-translate* three, four, or even five books of an author which they have already translated, and the ability to *re-write* into Greek some twenty or forty lessons, if you please, of English sentences which they have already written out. Yet how many of us are giving our boys any more *power* in the Greek language today?

If we are not giving them any more we are not doing what we seem to have agreed that we ought to be doing; what we seem to have agreed that we are able to do.

Why is this so?

1. We are not letting go the old methods while trying to adopt the new; this, too, when the object is often clearly defined in the teacher's mind. Hence, crowding both, we are spoiling both.

In the past the study of the Greek language has been made the pack-horse to carry all the baggage that should have been distributed among the other studies. Mental discipline, general culture, ancient history, technical grammar, mythology, elegance of English translation, all these have been bundled upon the Greek two-year-old. The studies of German and French, and English and science, and history and geography, as they are today studied, are eminently fitted and perfectly willing to bear their portion of these burdens. It is ours to let them do their part.

There is no teacher of the German language who does not believe there is mental discipline in it. There is no teacher of the German language who teaches the German for the mental discipline there is in it. There is general culture in the study of history. But let the teacher teach the history and the culture will come with the teaching. No man believes in the study of technical grammar more than I do; but the technicalities of human speech to be studied must be examined through a clearer medium than that of preparatory Greek. English is now given the entire attention of a department. Why should Greek continue to do for it the work which it now professes to do for itself?

When we study the German language, we study it for the distinctive benefits that language has for us. When we teach the Greek language, should we not teach it for the distinctive benefits that language has for our student? Yet I confess the past has such a hold upon me that I find myself crowding out the study of the language that I may bring in history, mythology, and grammar, and that I may talk about the culture of the Greeks. I don't find these temptations as I teach other things. How long would "idiomatic English translation" continue to be the aim of a class beginning German?

The letters show that we are trying to do too much. Let us be willing to be very simple in our work with beginners in this subject, and thus show our greater wisdom.

To give due emphasis to the direct aim of the work, we must learn to emphasize less those things which perhaps after all are best attained indirectly.

2. Again, the letters reveal a great confusion in the use of terms. Especially is this true in the use of the terms reading and sight reading, translation and sight translation.

This confusion may be very natural to us who in college never knew these terms as they are now used. The distinction is quite clearly set down on page 83 of "The Report of the Committee of Ten." If we can come to a common agreement in the use of these terms we have removed at least one of the difficulties in the way of attaining our end.

Drill in *forms* cannot be emphasized too much!

To this end some use may be made of the simplest elements of comparative philology to great advantage. Change of sounds, forms of inflection, roots, stems, suffixes, and prefixes become of vital interest to a boy who has learned to combine them into wholes. Arouse a lively interest in *forms* by such processes of analysis and synthesis. Hold the intelligent attention of the student by these processes till the *forms* are fixed. The relation of the relative pronoun to the case endings, the relation of the personal pronoun to the personal endings, the force of the augment, the reduplication and such, never need let this part of the work become dry.

Write simple Greek under the eye of the teacher.

Translate simple new Greek under the eye of the teacher.

Drill on forms found in prepared text work.

Translate Greek given orally by the teacher.

The methods suggested for acquiring vocabularies are equally varied:

Aside from drill on the words recurring in the text-lists, first it is necessary to learn some words before grouping.

Comparing and grouping words—Here care must be taken to lead by interest rather than to obstruct by problems for solution. Cultivate keen observation of similarities and differences.

Meaning of terminations means new symbols.

Choose root words for lists.

Principal parts of common verbs mean the multiplying of symbols.

English derivatives.

Of words occurring in the text commit to memory those of new roots before they are met in the text, and let the context give the meaning to the new words of known roots.

Let it never be forgotten that in an inflected language the mastery of *forms* is a large step toward the mastery of the vocabulary.

The vocabulary that enables the English-speaking child to read a sentence at sight is gained in the home, on the playground and in the class room. The vocabulary that enables the student of a foreign modern language to read a sentence at sight is gained in the table talks, class room conversations, and lexicon. But in the study of a language such as the Greek, which is neither spoken in the class room or home, nor met in the ordinary walks of life, word lists, grouping of words, roots, terminations, and talks about words must be resorted to by the teacher to give to the student the power that will enable him to come up to a new sentence with the assurance that conquers.

Practice reading the Greek in the original by ear and mouth as well as by eye; and let the teacher determine by the inflection whether the student has the sense.

The science of teaching says, give the student the forms, the sound, and the meaning of the words, and then give him reading matter fitted to his development on which to practice. In the modern languages, and now in the Latin, great care is exercised to grade the books for the development of the student. There is a demand for such books in the Greek courses of our secondary schools. It is a fair question to ask, however, whether we are using what we have.

Tradition says, it is unscholarly to use easy books prepared for such a purpose. But is this more unscholarly than it is to put the child of the second-reader grade in English into such a book as Green's *History of England*, or a child of the first-lesson grade in Greek into Xenophon's *Anabasis*? But the college men demand the traditional number of pages and chapters. Yes, and were we specialists we should demand the same. It is ours to do our duty, and to rely on the larger results to gain the coöperation of those above us. Let us be willing to be called less scholarly that we may prove our work more valuable.

The general consensus of opinion gleaned from these letters seems to be this:

(a) We are holding the study of Greek in secondary schools responsible for too many things.

(b) The time has gone by when we need to take up any study for merely the discipline there is in it.

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Practice reading the Greek in the original by ear and mouth as well as by eye; and let the teacher determine by the inflection whether the student has the sense.

The science of teaching says, give the student the forms, the sound, and the meaning of the words, and then give him reading matter fitted to his development on which to practice. In the modern languages, and now in the Latin, great care is exercised to grade the books for the development of the student. There is a demand for such books in the Greek courses of our secondary schools. It is a fair question to ask, however, whether we are using what we have.

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The general consensus of opinion gleaned from these letters seems to be this:

(a) We are holding the study of Greek in secondary schools responsible for too many things.

(b) The time has gone by when we need to take up any study for merely the discipline there is in it.

(c) Elegance of English translation must always come through the perfect knowledge of the idioms of the original language, by constantly comparing the idioms, the similarities, and dissimilarities of the two languages.

(d) The best way to get this perfect knowledge of the Greek is through an acquaintance with the Greek literature.

(e) The best way to gain this acquaintance with the Greek literature is by learning to read the Greek language.

(f) The best way to learn to read the Greek language is to study it as we study any other language; make everything contribute to this one end: Read Greek! Read Greek!! Read Greek!!!

If our text-books are not just what we could wish, let us make better use of what we have, pray for better ones, and then help answer our own prayers by making the study of Greek so popular that there will be sale for such books when they are made.

If we need more time for the study of Greek in our schools, let us prove ourselves faithful over the few things that have been given us. Then we may expect to be made rulers over many things; not until then.

My own opinion is that we, the teachers of Greek, have received from the public all that we deserve in return for the results we have given that public. I believe we are on the threshold of larger things. And the review of these letters that have come to me from all over our country seems to show that that belief is well founded.

HAMILTON KING

OLIVET, MICH.

Professor F. S. Goodrich, of Albion College, in discussing Professor King's paper said:

The replies received by Professor King show considerable unanimity of opinion with regard to the aim of elementary Greek study. Most of them say that the immediate object should be the development of the ability to read Greek readily at sight. One of the strongest objections to the study of the classics is the claim that students do not learn to read the language. In English studies the ability to read English must precede gains in other directions. If mental development is the immediate object of elementary Greek study, then the more of syntax and forms the better. If reading at sight is the aim, some of this must be omitted in a two-years' course. In acquiring the ability to read, the other desirable results will be incidentally obtained, but their fullest development belongs to college work. The student does not study grammar for the sake of the grammar, but for the sake of the literature to which the grammar is an "open sesame."

More time is needed. This can be secured only by removing some of the studies which overburden the classical course. All the courses have brought their offerings into it. Less English should be required in the clas-

sical than in other courses. If we allow other men to say what the features of their courses shall be, classical teachers should be granted the privilege of some authority with reference to what shall constitute a classical course. The essential characteristics of any course should be retained, whatever else is omitted.

I should not compel everyone to take Greek, but I feel with regard to it as the Committee of Twelve do about Latin, that those who do take it should be allowed time enough to secure the best results. Moreover, as Vice Chancellor Hyde says: "The best preparation for modern life is a perfect apprehension of the Greek thought and the Greek literature. Next to more grace we need more Greek."

Most of the replies recommended thorough drill in forms, sight reading, vocabulary drills, oral and written prose composition. These are all points worthy of attention, but one thing ought to be said concerning the teacher himself. His method may be perfection, but unless he has the Greek soul, unless the old Greek fire burns in his bosom, he will not attain very great results. He must not stand on the defensive, and apologize for the classical course. He must fully realize President Thwing's words: "One of the most valuable kinds of training the college can give is linguistic. The college is not filling the mind with useless knowledge in requiring students to learn these, not dead, but living languages;" and Professor Woodrow Wilson's words: "What you cannot find a substitute for is the classics as literature."

The rest of the session was given to the reading of papers of a more technical character. The first was by Professor S. J. Axtell, of Kalamazoo College, on "The Uses of the Participle in Greek as presented in the Grammars." The following is an abstract:

The treatment of the participle in the Hadley-Allen and Goodwin grammars is unsatisfactory. The subject itself is difficult, and the facts do not readily yield to analysis and clear-cut classification. One desideratum is a good definition. Hadley-Allen gives the following under the head of "The Infinitive:" "The infinitive and the participle are verbal nouns—a substantive and an adjective. But they are unlike other nouns derived from verbs, being more nearly related in form and construction to the finite verb." This is faulty because it unites the two under one definition when their importance demands separate treatment, and because it supposes that the learner knows that in origin noun and adjective are one and the same. Goodwin says: "The participle is a verbal adjective and has three uses." The importance of the subject calls for a fuller statement, one similar to the definition in the Century Dictionary: "A word having the value of an adjective as a part of speech, but so regularly made from a verb and associated with it in meaning and construction as to seem to belong to the verb."

If a participle is a verbal adjective, may not its syntax be presented on the lines of an adjective? Hadley-Allen partly follows this method, Goodwin does not. Experience shows that the syntactical relation of participle with substantive needs to be strongly impressed on the student. Grammars, therefore, should clearly present that relation.

The statements of the grammars in regard to the participle as an attributive, and as a virtual substantive, call for no criticism.

Adjectives are predicated of substantives by the participle of *εἶναι*; but participles predicate themselves. Every participle not clearly attributive is a predicate, and expresses what may be termed a secondary predication bearing various relations to the primary predication of the finite verb. Hadley-Allen recognizes all participles not attributive as predicate, Goodwin fails to do so. Both divide non-attributives into circumstantial and supplementary. They do not agree, however, in their subdivisions.

Attention is called to the statements in regard to the supplementary use and to the divisions under that head. Hadley-Allen says: "The supplementary participle is closely connected with the verb and supplies an essential element of the predicate." Goodwin says: "The supplementary participle completes the idea expressed by the verb by stating that to which the action relates." Let us see whether these statements properly present the facts.

(a) "The supplementary participle is used with the verbs which denote a state of the feelings, as *to repent, rejoice*," etc. (Goodwin). Thus *Apology*, 33. c.: *Χαίρουσιν ἑξεταζομένους τοῖς οἰούμενοις μὲν εἶναι σοφοῖς οὐκ ὅν.* "They delight in having those examined who think they are wise and are not." Can the participle *ἑξεταζομένους* be properly described as "closely connected with the verb," or as "completing the idea expressed by the verb?" Grammatically it is predicated of *τοῖς οἰούμενοις*, and united with that, it gives the cause of the rejoicing. A noun alone could have been used to express the cause, as in *Odys.* II, 35: *Χαίρει φήμῃ νῆος, the son rejoiced in the prophetic voice.* No one thinks of calling a noun so used as supplementary; rather it is described as dative of cause. Why not, then, explain the participle as predicative of *τοῖς οἰούμενοις*, and the two united as dative of cause? Nothing surely is gained by trying to attach the participle to the verb.

(b) "The participle with verbs signifying *to hear, learn*, etc., denotes the act which is perceived, heard of," etc. Example, *ὡς ἐπύθορτο τῆς Πύλου καταλημμένης*, *Thuc.* IV, 6. "When they heard of the capture of Pylos." The participle here denotes that to which the action relates, and so would a noun alone without a participle. But does it "complete the idea expressed by the verb," or is it "closely connected with the verb" so that the term supplementary is applicable? Its apparent connection is with the substantive, rather than with the verb. It forms with the substantive the object of the verb, but that does not give it any peculiar relation to the verb itself. A truer explanation

would be that this class of verbs may take as objects substantives with accompanying participles, the action expressed by the participle constituting an essential element of the object. If such participles are supplementary it is because they supplement the substantive.

For reasons similar to those just given it seems inaccurate and confusing to designate as supplementary the use of participles with verbs signifying *to see*, etc., where the sense approaches that of the infinitive in indirect discourse, and also the use with verbs signifying *to find*, *to detect*, etc. In these and like cases it appears simpler to recognize the adjective nature of the participle and to explain the action expressed by the participle as part of the object.

With verbs signifying *to begin*, *to continue*, etc., the participle is used in a way that appears to justify the term supplementary. Such verbs do not denote action so much as they express certain relations of the subject to the action, which last appears in the participle. They might almost be called semi-copulas. In the same class are *τυγχάνω*, *φθάνω* and *λαθάνω*.

SYNTAX OF GREEK PARTICIPLES

(Suggested outline.)

1. Participle as an attributive :

- (a) Simply qualifying a noun with noun expressed.
- (b) Qualifying a noun not expressed and thus equivalent to a substantive ;
- (a) with the article, (β) without the article.

2. Participle as a secondary predicate :

(a) Predicating action or state where the predicated action is practically coördinate with that of the verb and the participle with accompaniments is used instead of a coördinate sentence. (Coördinate use.)

(b) Predicating subordinate action or state where the participle with accompaniments is equivalent to a dependent clause, a phrase, or an adverb, and denotes time, manner, cause, means, purpose, condition, concession, or that in which the action consists. (Subordinate use.)

(c) United with a substantive so that the two form a compound substantive in which the action of the participle is an essential element :

(a) With verbs denoting feeling, (β) with verbs denoting action of the senses or the mind, (γ) with the latter class in indirect discourse. (Comple-ment use.)

(d) Supplementing the predication of the verb.

(e) Used with the verb *εἶμι*, (a) to form certain parts of the verb (supple-mentary use), (β) as predicate adjective.

(f) Genitive absolute.

(g) Accusative absolute.

Mr. J. H. Harris, instructor in Latin in the Orchard Lake Military Academy, then read a paper on "The Dates of Cicero's Letters for the year 59 B. C.

Following along lines suggested by Professor Abbott of the University of Chicago, Mr. Harris argued from internal evidence for a more exact determination of the dates of the letters of this year than is indicated either by Baiter and Kayser or Wesenberg.

After dwelling briefly on the political and historical importance of the year, he went on to show that daily letters must have passed between Cicero and Atticus while the former was at Antium and probably also when he was at Formiæ. In this period April 12 to May 2 or 3 are included Letters IV-XVII. The remaining Letters XVIII-XXV were fixed in June, July, and August.

The last paper of the session was by Mr. Edwin L. Miller of the Englewood (Ill.) High School and is of so much interest to teachers of Virgil that it is given herewith almost, if not quite, in full :

TEN NOTES ON VIRGIL

At classical conferences there is a perpetually recurring wail to the effect that the preparation of students sent to college is insufficient both in quantity and in quality; and a perpetually recurring effort to discover the reason and remedy the fault. Sometimes we are gravely informed that the evil will be removed if we insist that some vowels shall take twice as much time in pronunciation as others. Sometimes it is asserted that if we devote three times as much effort as now to the process of manufacturing diluted imitations of Ciceronian prose, our troubles will vanish. At others, we are told, with great vigor and a strong German accent, that there will never be any real Latin scholarship in America until there shall be a preparatory course of six years.

These remedies, I believe, are all based on an insufficient conception of the situation. They will never cure the disease. Students are dull and listless because they are not interested. Interest them, and in the genial sunlight of their enthusiasm the iceberg of indifference will soon dwindle into nothingness. What is learned in the white heat of enthusiasm differs from what is learned in the laborious mills of gerund grinders precisely as the product of the rude axe of the pioneer differs from the finished lumber turned out of a modern sawmill. The knowledge that is acquired with pleasure is the only true knowledge.

The following notes are the result of some fragmentary attempts to put into practice the principle outlined above. They are taken from a collection of several hundred which has grown through five years and been preserved in an interleaved copy of Virgil, a device, by the way, which no teacher of a classical author can afford to be without. In writing them my purpose has been merely to give pleasure to the student. Some people may be unphilosophical enough to despise an object so trivial. To them I wish to put a

question: Is there any human institution or act which does not have for its object, now or hereafter, the production of human pleasure? The means may be ill calculated to secure that end, but the object is eternally the same. Nor can I discern any sufficient reason why an innocent means of producing immediate gratification should be less highly esteemed than the pursuit of a shadowy and indefinite good, which, like an *ignis fatuus*, is ever vanishing among the infinite vistas of futurity. For these reasons I trust that I may venture to present to an assemblage of serious-minded instructors some matters that, in the vulgar estimation, have perhaps little to do with real scholarship:

I

I, 11-12. "On voit partout combien le caractère national du poème est marqué: partout ainsi, à chaque pas et sur chaque point saillant de la composition, planera la prediction romaine. C'est le but de Virgile. . . . Quelle plus douce flatterie aux Romains que ce mot *fuit*, que de commencer son receit en rapellant que cette altièr rivale a été, qu'elle n'est plus."—*Sainte-Beuve*.

2

I, 34. IN MEDIAS RES.

Most epic poets plunge in *medias res*,
(Horace makes this the heroic turnpike road),
And then your hero tells, whene'er you please,
What went before, by way of episode,
While seated after dinner at his ease,
Beside his mistress in some soft abode,
Palace or garden, paradise or cavern,
Which serves the happy couple for a tavern.

—BYRON, *Don Juan*, B. I, Stanza 6.

3

I, 249. Tautology is here used purposely. Infinite rest is suggested by the accumulation of words denoting repose. The device has been parodied:

Let the singing singers
With vocal voices, most vociferous,
In sweet vociferation, out-vociferize
Even sound itself.

—HENRY CAREY (1663-1743) *Crononhotonthologos*, I, 1.

Johnson has a like construction:

Let observation, with extensive view,
Survey mankind, from China to Peru.—*V. of H. W.*, I.

The same tendency is exemplified in the following :

To bellow through the vast and boundless deep.—MILTON, *P. L.*

Ω καὶ τὸν κακῶν κάκιστον.—ST. CHRYSOSTOM.

This is the worst of all worst worsts.—BEN JONSON.

Than tir'd eyelids upon tir'd eyes.—TENNYSON, *Lotus Eaters*.

4

I, 378. SUM PIUS ÆNEAS. Humility in the use of the first person singular is a very recent development. The Romans were all great braggers. Caesar's *Veni, vidi, vici*; Cicero's *Sum pater patrie*; and the prophecies of Horace and Ovid as to the immortality of their poems will be remembered. "*Orna me*," said Cicero." "I spoke with divine power in the Senate yesterday." Epicurus wrote to a statesman: "If you desire glory, nothing can bestow it more than the letters I write to you." Dante said:

Thus has one Guido from the other snatch'd
The letter'd pride; and he perhaps is born
Who shall drive either from their nest;

Shakespeare:

Not marble, nor the gilded monuments
Of princes, shall outlive this powerful rhyme.

Milton proclaimed his intention to leave something "so written to after times that the world should not willingly let it die," and spoke of having lost his eyes, in

"My noble task,
Whereof all Europe rings from side to side."

Chaucer called himself the most noble philosophical poet in English; Dryden said a nobler ode than Alexander's Feast never had been written and never would be; Buffon said there were only five great geniuses in modern times: Newton, Bacon, Leibnitz, Montesquieu, and Buffon; Kepler modestly asserted that his books could well wait a century for a reader, in view of the fact that God Almighty had waited 6000 years for an observer.—See MATTHEWS, *Literary Style*, p. 85.

5

I, 462. That liquid, melancholy cry,

From whose pathetic, soul—fed springs,
Seem'd surging the Virgilian sigh—
The sense of tears in mortal things.—MATTHEW ARNOLD.

Yet tears to human suffering are due,
And mortal hopes, defeated and o'erthrown,
Are mourned by man, and not by man alone,
As fondly he believes.—WORDSWORTH'S *Laodamia*.

"Soon after its (*The Elegy's*) publication," says Mason, "I remember sitting with Mr. Gray in his college apartments. He expressed to me his surprise at the rapidity of its sale. I replied: 'Sunt lachrymae rerum, et mentem mortalia tangunt.' He paused awhile, and, taking a pen, wrote the line on a printed copy of it lying on the table. 'This,' said he, 'shall be its future motto.' 'Pity,' cried I, 'that Dr. Young's *Night Thoughts* have pre-occupied it!' 'So,' replied he, 'indeed it is.'"

6

II. 1. "Virgil's words CONTICVEREOM look strangely in a half finished scrawl from a wall of Pompeii's hushed and solitary homes."—FREDERICK MYERS. *Essays Classical—Virgil*.

7

II, 49. Dr. Johnson made a happy application of this line. Mrs. Boswell took a violent dislike when she first met him to his uncouth ways. This was not decreased by a habit he had of holding his candle upside down, when it failed to burn brightly, and letting the tallow drop on her carpet. She relented, however, at last, and as a peace-offering sent him a jar of marmalade. There upon he wrote to Mr. Boswell: "Tell Mrs. Boswell that I shall taste her marmalade cautiously at first."—*Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes*.

8

IV, 313. VARIUM ET MUTABILE.—See FIELDING, *Amelia*, Book X, chap. 1.

9

IV, 665. For a very amusing account of the effect produced by the preceding passage upon Jane Welsh Carlyle when a girl, see FROUDE'S *Carlyle*, Vol. I., chap. 8, p. 69.

10

V, 524. "Plato drew a good bow, but like Acestes' aim in Virgil, he aimed at the stars; and therefore, though there was no want of strength or skill, the shot was thrown away. His arrow was indeed followed by a track of dazzling radiance but it struck nothing.

Volans liquidis in nubibus arsit arundo,
Signavitque viam flammis, tenuesque recessit
Consumpta in ventos.

Bacon fixed his eye on a mark which was placed on the earth, and within bow shot, and hit it in the white."—MACAULAY. *Essay on Bacon*.

It is perhaps superfluous to remark that each of these notes is representative of a class. Scores of others of similar nature and equal interest can be gleaned from almost every department of literature.

Let me, in conclusion, at the risk of repetition, reiterate the statement that exercises of this sort are not to be considered agreeable relaxations but absolute necessities. They are not the green herbs that set off the rich flesh tints of the salmon as he lies smoking upon our table; they are the bait by which alone the fish can be caught. Until their true importance is realized the study of the classics is bound to remain what too many who essay it find it now, an "asinine feast of sour thistles and brambles." Only when such work shall have assumed its legitimate place in the estimation of instructors, will the study of Cicero and Cæsar, Virgil and Ovid, Xenophon and Homer, become what the greatest of Anglo-Saxon classicists saw that it ought to be and was not, a noble prominence, "laborious indeed at the first ascent, but else so cool, so green, so full of goodly prospect and melodious sound on every side, that the harp of Orpheus was not more charming."

J. H. HARRIS

BAY CITY, MICH.

A SELECTIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR USE IN FRAMING CLASSICAL PROGRAMMES FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

CONTENTS

- I. Facts as to the present condition of Latin and Greek in American Schools (11 titles).
- II. Foreign Secondary Schools (7 titles).
- III. Relation of Greek and Latin to the Modern Languages, and to Courses of Grammar Schools (9 titles).
- IV. Specific Suggested Programmes (12 titles).
- V. Psychology and Method (14 titles).
- VI. Miscellaneous (14 titles).

ABBREVIATIONS

Ed. Rev. = *Educational Review*, published by Henry Holt & Co., New York.

Sch. Rev. = *School Review*, published by the University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

Academy = An American Journal of Secondary Education, discontinued in its seventh volume in 1892; published by Geo. A. Bacon now of Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

I

FACTS AS TO THE PRESENT CONDITION OF LATIN AND GREEK IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

1. Reports of the Committee (of the National Educational Association) on College Entrance Requirements. *Sch. Rev.*, June 1896.

Contains the entrance requirements of all the most important American colleges, with special articles on the entrance requirements in Latin and Greek.

2. The recently adopted requirements in Latin and Greek at Yale and Princeton as given in the catalogues.

Significant as indicating increasing flexibility. See also the new requirements at Harvard. IV, 11 below.

3. Some of the best catalogues of the best Secondary Schools. The following will be found to give the courses of study fully and clearly :

Roxbury Latin School, Roxbury, Mass. (six years' course).

Boston Latin School, Boston, Mass. (six years' course).

Phillips Exeter Academy, Exeter, N. H.

Phillips Andover Academy, Andover, Mass.

Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Conn.

The Morgan Park Academy, Morgan Park, Ill.

The Fort Wayne High School, Fort Wayne, Ind.

Syllabus of the Course of Study, Chicago High Schools.

School Reports, Brookline, Mass., and Lansing, Mich.

4. Secondary Education in Massachusetts.

See the Board of Education Report for 1893-4, pp. 130-137, 220, 249-263, 420-421. The above pages are summarized in the *Sch. Rev.*, for April 1896, pp. 244-245.

5. Secondary Education in New York.

University of State of New York. (a) Academic Syllabus for 1895, pp. 322-335, contains outlines and suggestions for teaching Latin and Greek. (b) Report of Examination Departments, 1895, pp. 8-9 and 96-101, contains tables giving number of papers written in all secondary subjects, with percentage of failure in each subject. Examination Bulletin containing papers given in each subject in 1896. All the above may be obtained from the Regents' office, Albany.

6. Secondary Education in Michigan. Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction (Lansing, Mich.) 1895.

High School Statistics, pp. 66-71, give number taking Latin, Greek, French, German, in each school; pp. 85-95, and 118-127 are given to sample programmes recommended for Michigan High Schools, with discussion upon them.

7. Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, 27th Annual Meeting *Sch. Rev.*, February 1897.

Shows by facts and figures the intensity of work in Michigan High Schools and how far existing college requirements are adapted to these schools. Papers and discussions.

8. Report of National Commissioner of Education, 1894-5, Vols. I and II.

Contains over two hundred pages of statistics of secondary schools, including size of schools, number preparing for college in both classical and scientific courses and number pursuing the several secondary school subjects. See also an article by F. W. Hewes in *Harpers' Weekly* for December 7, 1895, giving the numbers pursuing the principal secondary subjects in the whole nation.

9. College Requirements in Greek. B. I. Wheeler. *Sch. Rev.*, February 1893.

Of 172 colleges 11 per cent. had no course requiring Greek; 18 per cent. required three years of Greek, 49 per cent. two years, and 33 per cent. one year.

10. Status of the High School in New England. C. H. Douglas. *Ed. Rev.*, January 1893.

Shows the number who go to college (with related facts) in a series of tables.

11. Classical Education in the Secondary Schools. Arthur Fairbanks. *Sch. Rev.*, June 1897.

Gives facts gathered from the whole country as to the extensiveness and intensity of classical study, the authors read, etc.

See also III, 9; IV, 11; V, 14; VI, 1, 3, 12, 14.

II

FOREIGN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. Greek and Latin in the Higher Schools of Germany. J. E. Russell. *Sch. Rev.*, October and November 1896.

Founded on recent personal investigations. Gives full programmes with reasons for the arrangements of studies. States defects as well as excellencies.

2. Geschichte des gelehrten Unterrichts auf den deutschen Schulen und Universitäten. Professor F. Paulsen, University of Berlin; 1884.

The last chapter is translated by Samuel Thurber and published as a supplement to the *Academy*, Vol. I. Professor Paulsen believes that Latin and Greek have been too much exalted.

3. Remarks on the New Course of Study in Latin. Dr. W. Fries. *Lehrproben und Lehrgänge aus der Praxis der Gymnasien und Realschulen*, February 1893, pp. 1-36. Reviewed in *Sch. Rev.*, May 1895.

A discussion of the contents of the new course and methods of teaching it. Defends Cæsar as an interesting author and believes that the whole of the Gallic War should be read.

4. The Educational System of the (English) Public Schools. Principal Welldon of Harrow. The *Academy*, February and March 1891.

Favors admission to Cambridge and Oxford without Greek. See also the *Academy* for February 1891, pp. 59-61 and 49-55.

5. English Education. Sharpless.

International Educational Series. Appleton, 1892. Chap. iv, Secondary Education. Chap. v, Great Public Schools.

6. Secondary Education in France during the Third Republic. Dr. Carl Dörfeld. *Deutsche Zeitschrift für ausländische Unterrichtswesen*, July and October 1896.

The first article is summarized in the *Sch. Rev.*, for November 1896 and a summary of the second will appear shortly in the same periodical.

7. Education from a National Standpoint. Alfred Fouillée. Translated in the International Educational Series. Appleton, 1892.

With special reference to French secondary education which is compared with English and German. Strongly favors classics. Constructs programmes in Appendix. The teachers of the Michigan State Normal School (Ypsilanti, Mich.) taking the above work as a basis, have prepared a series of papers bound in one pamphlet and called, "Unification of School Work."

See also III, 1, 3, 7; IV, 6; V, 4, 5, 7, 13; VI, 10.

III

RELATION OF GREEK AND LATIN TO THE MODERN LANGUAGES AND TO THE COURSES OF THE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS

1. Papers in favor of a Six Years' Latin Course, by Professors West and Hale and Superintendent Nightingale. *Sch. Rev.*, June 1895.

Superintendent Nightingale's paper gives detailed programmes of Prussian gymnasium and French Lycée.

2. Foreign Language Study in Grammar Schools. John Tetlow. *Ed. Rev.*, February 1894.

Give reasons for preferring a modern language to Latin and French to German.

3. A New Method of Language Teaching. Wilhelm Viëtor, University of Marburg. *Ed. Rev.*, November 1893.

Supports the contention of the American Modern Language Association that French or German be taught before Latin, pp. 352, 354.

4. Report of the Committee of Fifteen "on the Correlation of Studies in Elementary Education," by W. T. Harris, J. M. Greenwood, C. H. Gilbert, L. H. Jones, and W. H. Maxwell. New England Publishing Co., Boston, Mass. Also printed in *Ed. Rev.* for March 1895.

Discusses the question of Latin and algebra in grammar grades.

5. Will any Kind and Amount of instruction in Modern Languages make them satisfactory Substitutes for Greek and Latin as Constituents of a Liberal Education? Papers and debate.

Proceedings of the First Annual Convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in the Middle States and Maryland, December 1893. Published by the Association. Secretary, Professor J. Q. Adams, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

6. Benefits accruing to Classical Studies from a previous Study of a Modern Language. H. F. Burton. In abstract, *Sch. Rev.*, June 1895.

7. The Practicability of Abridging the Course preparatory for College. F. A. Hill, with discussion at New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. *Academy*, November 1891.

A valuable paper and discussion, covering the whole ground of secondary and grammar school programmes and comparing American programmes with French and German by means of chart.

8. *Resolved*: That in every secondary school and in college, as far as the end of the sophomore year, the study of language

and the study of mathematics should be predominantly and continuously pursued; that the study of English, including grammar, rhetoric, and composition, should continue throughout every course; that two languages, besides English, should be studied; and that no other studies should be allowed to interfere with the preëminence of the studies here designated. Discussed at the meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, February 1897. Discussion in *Sch. Rev.*, April 1897.

9. Reports of E. P. Seaver, Superintendent of the Boston Public Schools.

The Fourteenth Report (1894) contains a discussion of the plan of "enriching" the grammar school course; the Sixteenth (1896) contains a somewhat full statement of the results of introducing French and Latin into the Boston Grammar Schools. A similar statement as to Latin and Algebra in the grammar schools of Peoria, Ill., by Superintendent N. C. Dougherty, is announced for an early number of the *Ed. Rev.*

See als I, 4, 6, and 8; IV, 11; VI, 8.

IV

SPECIFIC SUGGESTED PROGRAMMES

1. Committee of Ten Report, with those of Latin and Greek Conferences. National Bureau of Education, Washington.

2. Comments upon this report by eminent American educators in almost every number of the *Sch. Rev.* and *Ed. Rev.* for 1894. See also 5 and 6 below.

3. Report of a Committee of the Classical and High School Teachers' Association of Massachusetts. *Sch. Rev.*, September 1896, pp. 542-546.

States certain changes in college requirements desirable to adapt them to the curricula of small high schools.

4. Report of a Committee of the State Teachers' Association of Missouri. *Sch. Rev.*, September 1896, pp. 546-548.

Suggests four courses of study, and limitations in the work of schools of one, or two, or three teachers.

5. Address of the American Philological Association upon

the curtailment of the Greek course in the classical programme of the Committee of Ten. *Sch. Rev.*, September 1895.

The above address is adversely criticised editorially in the *Ed. Rev.* for October 1895.

6. Reform of Secondary Education in the United States. Nicholas Murray Butler. *Atlantic*, March 1894.

A review of the Report of the Committee of Ten. Examines the relative allotments of time to different branches and compares these allotments with those of the gymnasium and lycée.

7. An Experiment in Schedule Making. W. H. Butts. *Sch. Rev.*, September 1894.

A modification of the Committee of Ten programmes, allowing more time for ancient languages and suggesting options that will adapt the course to different colleges.

8. The Curriculum of a Small High School. E. J. Goodwin. *Sch. Rev.*, May 1895.

Discusses limitations of small schools and presents programmes.

9. Proposed requirements and programmes in Latin and Greek with full discussion by the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. *Sch. Rev.*, December 1895.

10. Suggestions for making Secondary School Programmes (with samples). W. L. Hervey. *Ed. Rev.*, June 1896.

Discusses principles with special applications to manual training and scientific schools.

11. The Rating of Studies in College Admission Examinations. Professor E. H. Hall, of Harvard. *Ed. Rev.*, May 1897.

Shows by facts from representative schools what studies are overweighted and what underweighted in the present scheme of admission at Harvard. Suggests needed adjustment of programmes and admission requirements. As a sequel, see "The new Harvard Entrance Requirements" by Prof. A. B. Hart. *Ed. Rev.*, Oct. 1897.

12. Courses in Latin and Greek for Secondary Schools. F. W. Kelsey. *Sch. Rev.*, June 1897.

This is the preliminary report of the Committee of Twelve of the American Philological Association.

See also I, 3, 11; VI, 4.

V

PSYCHOLOGY AND METHOD

("In the work of the committees the following aims should be kept in view: (a) ———; (b) To justify on pedagogical grounds the courses that shall be laid out." Report of Committee of Twelve. *Sch. Rev.*, June 1897, pp. 360-361.)

1. Psychology. John Dewey, Harpers, 1890.

2. Teachers' Handbook of Psychology, James Sully. Appletons. See also *Studies of Childhood* (same author and publishers, 1896), especially the chapter on *The Little Linguist*, pp. 133-190.

3. Psychology applied to Education. Gabriel Compayré. Translated by W. H. Payne. D. C. Heath & Co., 1894.

4. Raumer's *Geschichte der Methoden der Pädagogik. Lateinlehrens, Dritter Theil*, 60-96.

5. *Essays on Educational Reformers*. R. H. Quick. International Educational Series, Appletons, 1890.

The chapters on Ascham, Comenius, Jacotot, and Spencer have much to say of linguistic method.

6. *Lectures on Language and Linguistic Method in the School*. S. S. Laurie, University of Edinburgh. Simpkin, Marshall & Co., 1893.

7. *The Scholemaster*. Roger Ascham. May be obtained through Macmillan for 35 cents either as one of Arber's English Reprints or in the Bohn edition. Also just published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, in their Pedagogical Library.

This little book by the teacher of Queen Elizabeth is largely given to Ascham's method of teaching Latin—the method of double translation. It is delightful reading and historically as well as pedagogically valuable.

8. *The Learning of Languages*. Philip Gilbert Hamerton. *Forum*, April 1892.

9. *The Study of Latin in the Preparatory Course*. Professor E. P. Morris. D. C. Heath & Co., 1886; 25 cents.

An address to establish the proposition that the aim of preparatory Latin study is philological and not linguistic or literary.

10. Aims and Methods in Classical Study. Professor W. G. Hale. Ginn & Co., 1888; 25 cents.

A reply to the preceding pamphlet by Professor Morris.

11. The Art of Reading Latin: How to Teach it. Professor W. G. Hale. Ginn & Co., 1887; 25 cents.

A notably influential pamphlet, definite, and showing by repeated examples the author's views; emphasizing, too, the facts of the Latin language essential to a reading knowledge of it.

12. Chapters on the Aims and Practice of Teaching. Frederic Spencer. Macmillan & Co.; \$1.75.

A very recent book (February 1897) containing chapters upon all secondary school studies. The chapter on Greek is by W. Rhys Roberts, of the Univ. Col. of North Wales, that on Latin by J. L. Paton, Assistant Master in Rugby School. These chapters are broad and practical and the directions given are in the spirit of the motto, "No profit grows where is no pleasure ta'en." A pleasant feature is the hearty recognition of the work of several American scholars.

13. Über die Einfügung der inductiven Unterrichtsmethode in den lateinischen Elementarunterricht. J. Lattman. Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, Göttingen, pp. 24, 40 ff.

Intended as an introduction to the sixth edition of the author's First Year Latin book. Dr. Lattman has also written in a book of 400 pp. a History of Latin Elementary Instruction since the Reformation. Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, Göttingen, 1896.

14. Reports of the Harvard Committee on Composition and Rhetoric, 1891 and 1895. Publication Agent of Harvard University.

Contain criticism of methods and results in translation of Greek and Latin, with sample translations presented for admission to Harvard College. These reports are criticised and methods of teaching idiomatic translation presented in the following articles: (a) Sight Translation from the Classics as a test of proficiency in English Composition. John Tetlow. *Ed. Rev.*, June 1896; (b) Translation from Greek and Latin as a Training in the Use of English. I. B. Burgess, W. C. Collar, F. A. Manny, and others. *Nat. Ed. Asso. Proceedings*, 1896, pp. 563 ff.

See also I, 3, 5; II, 1, 3; III, 3; IV, 1, 2.

VI

MISCELLANEOUS FACTS AND ARGUMENTS BEARING ON THE CLASSICAL PROGRAMMES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. Uniform Standards in College Preparation. W. H. Butts. *Ed. Rev.*, February 1895. *Sch. Rev.*, February 1895.

A valuable collection of facts and opinions from representative schools and colleges on specific points in secondary curricula, several of which points have to do with the classics.

2. The Unprepared Recitation in Secondary Schools. I. B. Burgess. *Sch. Rev.*, January 1896.

Showing how one feature of the Committee of Ten report may affect programme making.

3. The Difficulties and Discouragements in the Early Stages of the Latin Course. E. J. Goodwin. *Sch. Rev.*, February 1896.

Certain facts as to failures in Latin in Newton, Mass., High School.

4. Report of the New England Association of Schools and Colleges. *Sch. Rev.*, December 1896.

Full of valuable material for programme making, and containing discussion of preparation for college by English high school, with paper by Dr. John Tetlow. Plea for vocal music, physical training, and drawing; with sample programme.

5. The Future of the High School. F. W. Kelsey. *Ed. Rev.*, February 1896.

Contains "Studies of the High School" in the future and facts regarding the increasing Latin requirements of scientific schools.

6. Recommendations (to the colleges) of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. *Sch. Rev.*, December 1894, pp. 647-648.

7. Should Language Studies be Limited in the Secondary Schools (as they are) in the Interests of the Sciences? D. W. Abercrombie. *Sch. Rev.*, October 1893. C. F. P. Bancroft, *Sch. Rev.*, March 1894.

8. What shall we teach in Latin in the Preparatory Schools and How? W. C. Collar, with discussion at meeting of New

England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, October 1893.

Opposes Cæsar, small vocabularies for the first year, Professor Hale's Method of Reading Latin, and the Study of Latin before French. Abstract of paper and full discussion. *Sch. Rev.*, December 1893. Paper in full. *Sch. Rev.*, January 1895.

9. Recommendations of Head Masters' Association as to Changes in Latin and Greek Requirements. *Sch. Rev.*, April 1895; also, *Nat. Ed. Asso. Proceedings*, 1895, pp. 580-581.

10. Cæsar als Schulbuch. Professor F. A. Wagler. In *Zeitschrift für das Gymnasialwesen*, 1857, pp. 481-503. Translated by F. H. Howard in *Sch. Rev.* for November 1897.

11. The Breviarium of Eutropius. J. W. Redway. *Ed. Rev.*, December 1896.

Recommends the Breviarium for first connected reading.

12. Reading at Sight in Elementary Latin Teaching. Professor C. E. Bennett of Cornell. *Ed. Rev.*, October 1896.

Criticises sight reading as at present practiced in the schools, and believes that sight reading should not be made prominent in preparation for college.

13. Latin in the High School. F. W. Kelsey. *Ed. Rev.*, June 1894.

Strongly urges broader and deeper scholarship for preparatory Latin teachers and suggests lines of study for such teachers.

14. A Professor of the Classics. "Prexie." *N. Y. Nation*, July 29, 1897.

Describes the difficulties of a college president in finding a professor who has thought out problems for himself and committed the results of his own labors to writing.

NOTE.—A Bibliography of Education by Will S. Monroe has just appeared in the International Education Series, Appletons. It will be found useful upon the more general aspects of this question and upon other questions related to this. It does not refer to periodical literature.

ISAAC B. BURGESS

THE MORGAN PARK ACADEMY

OUTLOOK NOTES

THIS number of the SCHOOL REVIEW is mainly devoted to the teaching of Latin. Old as this discipline is, strongly entrenched as it is in all our colleges and our best secondary

THE TEACHING OF LATIN

schools, there is yet so much agitation about How? How much? Where? and To whom? in connection with Latin as finds place concern-

ing any other subject of the curriculum. In Germany it is by no means unlikely that the agitation for the so-called *Einheitschule* may result ultimately, in the not too distant future, in reducing the course in Latin to a six-years' course. In our country, on the other hand, no inconsiderable advance has been made in introducing six-year courses in Latin. We need to be careful lest we take up as new gospel what Germany or some other country is just ready to abandon as worn-out buncombe. Our six-year Latin course, at present, rests upon a very different foundation from that supporting the extended Latin course in Germany. The rather general impression that the work in the grades should be more nutritious, together with the conviction that a foreign language ought to be begun, if taken up at all, before middle life, have been able to get Latin into the grammar grades in a few cities; but, in the main, the institutions supporting a six-year Latin course are private schools. In the six-year course in Latin we have really the entering wedge for a new division of our educational territory, making six grades in the high school and academy, 'six years of secondary work instead of four. Certain most reputable institutions are, on the other hand, starting where the secondary course regularly starts, and continuing their work two additional years, making a six-years' secondary course by appropriating two years hitherto sacred to the college. The question is also raised, why not begin Latin in college just as French and German are now begun?

Is it fair that the many thousands of students in the newer parts of the country who have no chance to take Latin in the high schools they attend, where they yet prepare for entrance to certain courses in very respectable colleges, should be forever cut off from the chance of getting Latin? This question is likely to be asked more and more insistently. The purpose of this paragraph is to state problems, not to solve them. It is clear that Latin teaching will yet furnish much material for experiments and discussion. Latin is a dead language, but a live subject.

C. H. THURBER

NOTES

THE SCHOOL REVIEW and the *Educational Review* have resigned from the Educational Press Association. The SCHOOL REVIEW has had this step in contemplation for sometime. The objects of the Educational Press Association, so far as they have been developed, are such that in the very nature of the case the SCHOOL REVIEW could have no share in them. The membership of the Association is made up, with few exceptions, of publications of the newspaper type, appearing many of them weekly, the aims and methods of which are essentially different from those of a magazine of the character of the SCHOOL REVIEW. Membership in the Association has in the past subjected the SCHOOL REVIEW to misunderstanding and criticism and would doubtless do so in the future. Purely commercial aims have always been subordinate with this magazine and must always remain so.

WE desire to call especial attention to the second (revised) edition of the *List of Books recommended for a High-School Classical Library*, by a committee of the Michigan Schoolmasters Club. In its original form, as distributed at the time of classical conference in Ann Arbor, an edition of three thousand copies of the list has been exhausted. This new edition has been edited with great care by Clarence Linton Meader, instructor in Latin in the University of Michigan. An introductory note by Professor Francis W. Kelsey, admirably explains the uses which the list will serve. The cost of the entire collection is placed at about twelve hundred dollars. Professor Kelsey shows how to go about the gradual accumulation of the library, and, in particular, tells how to spend the first fifty dollars to best advantage. This list is of indispensable value to every teacher of the classics, to whom it is as fundamentally necessary as a hammer to a carpenter. (The Macmillan Co.)

THE *Bibliography of Education*, by Will. S. Monroe, the latest volume in the International Educational Series, edited by Dr. Wm. T. Harris, is a work of

almost indispensable value to the teacher. The Bibliography covers 179 pages exclusive of a very full and exceedingly useful index, and a list of publishers following the preface. There is a careful classification of the titles, a very considerable number of which are followed by some critical estimate of the books. The work is substantially along the lines of Hall's *Bibliography of Education*. Without doubt one of the greatest services to the study of history in the United States was rendered by President C. K. Adams' *Manual of Historical Literature*. Will not some self-sacrificing scholar soon appear who will have the time and patience to prepare a similar manual of pedagogical literature? The labor of all bibliographical work is enormous and yet it is the most indispensable of all work for the progress of any science. Mr. Monroe's toil has smoothed the path for many of his fellow-workers.

BOOK REVIEWS

Selections from the History of Alexander the Great. By QUINTIUS CURTIUS RUFUS. Edited with notes and vocabulary by WILLIAM HUMPHREYS, Ph.D., formerly instructor in Latin in Princeton University. Ginn & Co., School Classics Series.

THIS little book contains 226 pages, distributed as follows: Introduction 19 pages, Text 42, Notes 43, General Vocabulary 100, Word Groups 22. The book contains all necessary maps and plans and the few illustrations which are indispensable in giving the pupil an accurate idea of the meaning of such words as *caduceus*, *ingum*, *sarissa*. The vocabulary is full, emphasizes root meanings and contains references to passages in which the word appears in the text. How far all instances of the use of the word in the text are given we are not informed. A brief prefatory note to the vocabulary giving information on this and other points would have enhanced the usefulness of this part of the book. The General Vocabulary is supplemented by Word Groups at the end of the book and synonyms at the bottoms of the pages of text—both praiseworthy features of the "Schools Classics Series."

The giving of help to the pupil by arranging the words of the text in what is supposed to be the natural English order as is done on pp. 60, 64 and 84, blinds the pupil to the meaning of Latin word order and retards the pupil's entrance into the Latin forms of thought. The method adopted of supplying in the notes Latin words supposed to be omitted, in some cases is likely to give the pupil conceptions quite

foreign to the Latin text. As a rule, however, the notes, display more than the usual care, relevancy, and sympathy with the elementary student's difficulties.

Quintius Curtius is easy and interesting, sometimes notably interesting as, *e. g.*, in the account of Alexander's almost fatal bath and its sequel (pp. 12-16, of this text). There is danger that some teachers may underestimate the difficulty which pupils will have in getting used to his late Latin syntax and vocabulary, if they come to him after a beginner's book based on earlier authors.

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